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TOWARD CREATING A MODEL URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEM--A STUDY OF THE WASHINGTON, D.C. PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

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EXTENSIVELY REPORTED ARE THE FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF A COMPREHENSIVE 15-MONTH STUDY OF THE WASHINGTON, D.C., PUBLIC SCHOOLS. SUCH A SURVEY, IT IS FELT, WILL HELP TO CREATE A MODEL URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEM WHICH WILL OFFER PUPILS QUALITY EDUCATION DIFFERENTIATED TO MEET THEIR INDIVIDUAL NEEDS. THIRTY-THREE SPECIALIZED TASK FORCES COLLECTED DATA ON ALL ASPECTS OF THE SCHOOL SYSTEMS--PUPIL POPULATION, PROFESSIONAL STAFF, INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM, MATERIALS, ADMINISTRATION AND ORGANIZATION, SERVICES, PLANT, RESOURCES, FINANCES, COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS, AND WORK WITH NONSCHOOL AGENCIES. THE STUDY COMMITTEE FOUND AMONG OTHER THINGS THAT (1) SCHOOL GROUPING PROCEDURES WERE BOTH ABUSED AND ABUSIVE, (2) THE SCHOOL SYSTEM WAS BECOMING RAPIDLY RESEGREGATED, (3) CURRICULUMS WERE NOT PARTICULARLY ADAPTED TO AN URBAN POPULATION, AND (4) ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT WAS SUBSTANDARD. AMONG THE RECOMMENDATIONS FOR INSTRUCTIONAL ORGANIZATION ARE PROPOSALS THAT THE CITYWIDE TRACKING SYSTEM BE ABOLISHED AND THAT PRESCHOOL EDUCATION BECOME A REGULAR SCHOOL SYSTEM POLICY. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR SCHOOL INTEGRATION INCLUDE SUGGESTIONS THAT EXPERIMENTAL METROPOLITAN SCHOOL PARKS BE ESTABLISHED AND THAT THERE BE BETTER RACIAL BALANCE OF STUDENTS AND FACULTIES IN EXISTING SCHOOLS. IT IS ALSO SUGGESTED THAT THERE BE COMMUNITY SCHOOLS WHICH WOULD OFFER SERVICES BASED ON NEIGHBORHOOD NEEDS AND THAT TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS OF INDIVIDUAL SCHOOLS SHOULD BE LARGELY RESPONSIBLE FOR CURRICULUM REDEVELOPMENT. RECOMMENDATIONS ARE ALSO MADE FOR CHANGES IN STAFFING PRACTICES, BUDGET POLICIES, PUPIL AND WELFARE SERVICES, AND VOCATIONAL, ADULT, AND CONTINUING EDUCATION, AMONG OTHERS. (LB)

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TOWARD CREATING A MODEL URBAN SCHOOL SYSTEM:

A Study of the Washington, D. C. Public Schools

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Foreword

In May 1966, at the invitation of the Superintendent of Schools and the Board of Education, Teachers College submitted a proposal for a comprehensive study of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia. Its focus was to be on the basic question of providing education of good quality for the District's school population. All aspects of public education in the District were to be considered in relation to the quality of the educational program: pupil population, professional staff, instructional program, materials, organization, services, plant, resources, finances, community relationships and work with non-school agencies.

Acceptance of the proposal and its embodiment in a contract between the Board of Education of the District of Columbia and Teachers College, Columbia University, climaxed several years of community discussion and activity. The school year 1965-1966, for example, opened with the announcement by the Chairman of the House Education Committee of an investigation to determine how the Washington schools could be upgraded and how they could serve the nation as models for testing new ideas and establishing new federally-aided programs.

Among the factors which stimulated the initiation of the present study were recurrent criticism of the so-called "track system" and dissatisfaction with the academic performance of the District's children. From the start, the Teachers College Study group saw the "tracking" issue as an irritant but as only a part of the larger and more significant question: what kind of education must the District provide if it is to meet its responsibility to its 147,000 students? Serving the nation's capital, encompassing the problems as well as the promise of urban school systems, the District schools needed first to determine what constitutes high quality education in an urban setting and how it can be attained. By broadening the purpose of the study from a limited assessment of the track system to a comprehensive educational survey, the District Board of Education authorized the thorough analysis needed to plan a "model" school system.

The study was conducted by 33 task forces, each headed by a specialist. The personnel of the task forces and a detailing of the inventories and instruments used are contained in appendix A. Task force chairmen, aided by consultants and graduate students, visited classes and schools; interviewed students, staffs, members of the community and school and community leaders of many kinds; administered questionnaires and inventories to pupils and staff members; examined pertinent pupil records and other school data; analyzed existing instructional resources and materials as well as curriculum bulletins and guides; examined reports and records from other agencies and offices; and drew on appropriate data sources wherever they could be found. Since the District schools are surely among the most surveyed and "investigated" in the nation, earlier reports were studied as well--from the report of the Advisory Committee on Education (1938) on down.

Each task force submitted findings and recommendations to the Study Director, who incorporated these into the pertinent sections of the final report.

Field work by the various task forces was completed in Spring 1967 and reports were submitted to the Study Director. Since the study contract required a preliminary report within twelve months of the signing, a presentation and discussion took place at a conference at Airlie House (Warrenton, Va.) on June 17 and 18, 1967. Eight of the nine members of the incumbent Board of Education and two of the three incoming members (i.e., those who were to take office on July 1) participated in this conference.

Three school administrators--the Superintendent, the Deputy Superintendent and the Assistant Superintendent for General Research, Budget and Legislation--and five members of the Teachers College, Columbia University staff participated. The Study Director gave the preliminary report orally. The conferees heard the major recommendations set forth and had an opportunity to raise questions and advance suggestions. At the conclusion of this two-day conference (financed by The New World Foundation), a press release was issued. News media distributed the short summary beginning Sunday afternoon and Monday morning, June 18-19.

On Monday afternoon, June 19, just prior to a news conference called by the Study Director to discuss more fully details of the preliminary report, Judge J. Skelly Wright issued his decision in the case of Julius W. Hobson et al vs. Carl F. Hansen, the Board of Education et al. (U. S. District Court for the District of Columbia, Civil Action No. 82-66). In his Summary, Judge Wright wrote:

> The basic question presented is whether the defendants, the Superintendent of Schools and the Board of Education, in the operation of the public school system here, unconstitutionally deprive the District's Negro and poor public school children of their right to equal educational opportunity with the District's white and more affluent public school children. This court concludes that they do.

Judge Wright issued a decree attached to his opinion which ordered the following Remedy:

> 1. An injunction against racial and economic discrimination in the public school system here. 2. Abolition of the track system. 3. Abolition of the optional zones. 4. Transportation for volunteering children in overcrowded school districts east of Rock Creek Park to underpopulated schools west of the Park. 5. The defendants, by October 2, 1967, to file for approval by the court a plan for pupil assignment eliminating the racial and economic discrimination found to exist in the operation of the Washington public school system. 6. Substantial integration of the faculty of each school beginning with the school year 1967-68. The defendants, by October 2, 1967, to file for approval by the court a teacher assignment plan fully integrating the faculty of each school.

On July 1, 1967, after the three new appointees were sworn in and new officers were elected, the Board of Education voted not to appeal the court decision. Further, the Board ordered Dr. Carl F. Hansen not to make an appeal on behalf of himself. On July 3rd, Dr. Hansen resigned as Superintendent of Schools and filed for retirement effective July 31st. An acting superintendent, Benjamin J. Henley, Jr., was appointed on July 8th.

Thus, subsequent to the data gathering and the presentation of the preliminary report to the Board of Education, a series of events has occurred which will profoundly affect the policies, actions and future of education in the District of Columbia.

The Study Staff has proceeded with the preparation of this report on the basis of its year-long analysis of education in the District of Columbia and the needs for providing education of high quality to all learners.

The Study staff presents herein its findings and its recommendations. The offer made at the start of the study by Teachers College, Columbia University, is repeated: task force chairmen stand ready, upon request, to provide expert advice and consultation in implementing these recommendations.

A. Harry Passow
Study Director

September 1967

Summary of Findings and Recommendations of A Study of the Washington, D. C. Public Schools

Teachers College, Columbia University, undertook a comprehensive 15-month study of the District of Columbia Public Schools to assess current programs and practices and to make recommendations which, if implemented, would insure education of good quality for Washington's population.

In contracting for the study, the Board of Education opened the District schools and themselves to the critical inquiries of outside observers who were deliberately seeking weaknesses which would account for the educational inadequacies of the system. In detailing contractual relationships, it was agreed that "the entire school system, including personnel, records and facilities, (was) to be opened to the consultants, limited only to the extent necessary to maintain the confidentiality of records of individual pupils and staff members." The Board, the school system and the community are to be commended for joining with study personnel in seeking ways of strengthening education in the District of Columbia.

The study was conducted by 33 task forces, each dealing with a specified problem area. Eighty-one (81) task force chairmen and consultants, 97 graduate assistants and students and a resident staff of 6 research assistants, probed all aspects of education in Washington. They visited schools and classes; interviewed students, staffs, parents, community members and school and community leaders; administered questionnaires and inventories to pupils and staff members; examined pertinent pupil records and other school data; studied reports and records from other agencies, governmental and private; and drew on appropriate data sources wherever they could be found. The thousands of pages of reports which they submitted, together with basic documents and data analyses, constitute a reservoir which can now be tapped for further study and planning.

The study was carried on in the middle of a year of significant educational, social and political upheaval. As professional educators, study personnel were impressed with the way various segments of the community and the school system were responding to the need for educational change.

A report is only a proposal and a guide for change; only as its recommendations are implemented does it have value. The events of the past year have convinced the study committee that the District of Columbia is ready to move toward the development of a model urban school system. Good will alone, however, will not enable the District to attain this objective. The hard work of studying the proposals and undertaking the activities which will bring about the desired changes still lies ahead for the schools and the community. Nor does the report contain instant panaceas; the problems of the District are far too complex to yield to simplistic solutions.

Because of the District's unique relationship to the federal government, whereby Congress acts as a "super-board of education," that body must reconsider its obligations to Washington's 150,000 children. Deep as its concern must be for the District's children, Congress has still another responsibility to the nation as a whole: it must help make it possible for Washington to become the nation's laboratory for the creation of a model for urban school systems and its showplace to other countries of how America's goals and values for equal opportunity can be attained in the metropolitan setting.

With its poverty, slums and obsolete schools and schooling, presently the District is exemplary only of the worst of the urbanized setting. Congress and the nation cannot continue to tolerate and even contribute to such a situation. Congress can help

in at least two ways: (1) it can strengthen the District's financial position with respect to present budgetary arrangements and (2) it can legislate special categorical grants for the next five to ten years to create the laboratory model demonstrating that city schools can provide full and equal opportunities to develop the talent potential of its entire population.

Washington is not just another troubled large city; it is the nation's capital and its international center. The District schools cannot be treated as just another school system, different only in that its patrons are without vote and that it is subjected to greater "federal control." America's cities are in crisis and turmoil and Washington is one of those cities but it is much more to the nation. Schools alone cannot resolve the problem of the cities, but, without adequate education, there is little hope of alleviating the difficulties metropolitan areas face. What better place is there for the nation to tackle its urban problems than in the city which houses its national and international leadership?

Nothing has a greater impact on the life of a child than the quality of education he receives; insuring that all children, with their similarities and differences, are provided quality education is the task with the highest priority that the schools and community face. The District and the entire federal establishment must fulfill this commitment to Washington's children and to the nation's children.

Major Findings of the Study

Despite some examples of good quality education, of dedicated and creative professionals at all levels, of a pattern of improving financial support and of efforts to initiate new programs, education in the District is in deep and probably worsening trouble. Unlike most large city systems which have a core of "slum" schools surrounded by a more affluent ring, the District has a predominance of so-called "inner-city" schools. These schools include large concentrations of economically disadvantaged children, a largely re-segregated pupil population, a predominantly Negro staff, a number of over-aged and inadequate school buildings and inappropriate materials and programs. The consequence, as the Panel on Educational Research and Development, President's Science Advisory Committee, noted of such schools across the nation, is that "adolescents depart... ill-prepared to lead a satisfying, useful life or to participate successfully in the community." The panel concluded its judgment of such schools by observing that "by all known criteria, the majority of urban and rural schools are failures."

Applying the usual criteria of scholastic achievement as measured by standardized tests, by holding power of the school, by college-going and further education, by post-secondary school employment status, by performance on Armed Forces induction tests, the District schools do not measure up well. Like most school systems, the District has no measures on the extent to which schools are helping students attain other educational objectives, for there are no data on self-concepts, ego-development, values, attitudes, aspirations, citizenship and other "non-academic" but important aspects of personal growth. However, the inability of large numbers of children to reverse the spiral of futility and break out of the poverty-stricken ghettos suggests that the schools are no more successful in attaining these goals than they are in the more traditional academic objectives.

The study findings confirm the general impressions that many professionals and lay citizens have about education in the District as presently organized and operated: the schools are not adequate to the task of providing quality education for the District's children. The generalized findings, documented in the report, point to a school system which reveals:

-- A low level of scholastic achievement as measured by performance on standardized tests.

-- Grouping procedures which have been honored in the breach as often as observed in practice.

-- A curriculum which, with certain exceptions, has not been especially developed for or adapted to an urban population.

-- A "holding power" or dropout rate which reflects a large number of youth leaving school before earning a diploma.

-- An increasing de facto residential segregation for the District as a whole, which has resulted in a largely re-segregated school system.

-- Staffing patterns which have left the schools with large numbers of "temporary" teachers and heightened the District's vulnerability at a time of national teacher shortage.

-- Guidance services which are unable to reach the heart of the personnel welfare needs of the pupil population.

-- Inadequate evaluation and assessment procedures together with limited use of test data for diagnosis and counseling.

-- Inservice teacher education programs which fall far short of providing adequately for the continuing education essential for professional growth.

-- A promotion system which has lacked the basic ingredients of career development and training for supervisory and administrative leadership.

-- Patterns of deployment of specialists, such as supervisors and psychologists, which tend to limit their effectiveness.

-- A "reacting school system" rather than an initiating one insofar as innovation, long-range planning and program development are concerned

-- A central administrative organization which combines overconcentration of responsibilities in some areas and proliferation and overlap in others.

-- Budgetary and business procedures which are needlessly complicated and cumbersome.

-- Substantial numbers of school buildings which are less than adequate for conducting a full educational program and in which the maintenance program lags badly.

-- Poor communication between the schools and the communities they serve.

-- A Board of Education whose operating procedures appear to be unusually cumbersome so that an inordinate amount of time is spent on repetitive debate and on administrative detail rather than policy leadership.

-- Relationships with other youth-serving agencies which are less than optimal.

To a greater or lesser extent, many of these same findings exist in other large cities. But because they are found elsewhere in no way mitigates their impact on Washington's population. Thus, the District faces a two-pronged challenge: providing massive remediation of existing learning difficulties for those new in school and designing developmental and compensatory programs for thousands of children who will be entering school in the years ahead.

Toward a Model Urban System

The issues around which controversy in Washington has centered recently -- i.e., the track system, de facto segregation and racial imbalance of students and staff, the proportion and assignment of "temporary" teachers and the location of new schools -- are peripheral but symptomatic of the District's crisis. The more central question before the Washington community and its schools is: What are the educationally relevant differences which the District's pupils bring into the classroom and what kinds of varied educational experiences must be provided by the schools to accommodate these differences? In understanding this question the schools will be in a position to seek the parameters of urban education and work toward developing a model urban school system.

Trying to pattern the District's educational programs and practices after what appears to work in the "best suburban schools" is unlikely to lead to an educational system appropriate to the District's population. A city is a vast and rich educational laboratory and Washington is especially affluent in these terms. An urbanized environment provides opportunities for its inhabitants, but it makes special demands on them as well. An education which will enable individuals to live effectively in and to earn a living in the urban center and which fully exploits the resources of that center must still be developed. It is toward that end -- the development of the urban education model -- that the District must work. The recommendations which follow are designed to help guide the District plan such an educational system.

It has been made abundantly clear in the past few years that the quality of education in the urban school is not dependent alone on the conditions and curricula within the school building itself nor its organizational arrangements. Housing, family life, employment opportunities, community organization, mobility and many other aspects of the socio-political-economic scene directly affect instruction. To say this is not to seek excuses for the school's failures but rather to underscore the point that the school must comprehend the impact of these forces on the development of its students and plan accordingly.

Washington has been the victim of the classic white and middle-class flight to the suburbs, leaving a population which is more than 60 percent Negro, largely poor and racially encapsulated. More than a third of the population lives in sub-standard, overcrowded housing. To redevelop the city so that the population attracted into the District will alter drastically the characteristics of the pupil population could take generations. In the meantime, for the hundreds of thousands of youngsters who come through the schools, an appropriate and adequate education must be designed. Differentiated instruction based on differentiated needs is at the heart of both equality and quality. This is where the schools must focus their efforts while, concurrently, other agencies and institutions are bringing about social and physical renewal to the District of Columbia.

Recommendations for Change

The report contains many recommendations -- major and minor, short and long-range. Some proposals can be implemented with little difficulty; others will require legislative action, large scale funding and reeducation of staff. All will require careful and detailed planning. The major proposals are summarized below.

THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM. Taken as a whole, the task forces reported a distressing situation. Six observations were common to most reports: (1) In almost every instance, there were some teachers and instructional leaders who were as effective and as well-informed as any the consultants had ever seen. The District, however, does not have its fair share of such people -- nor are they concentrated in a few schools or consistently missing in some parts of the city. They appear unexpectedly, frequently without recognition on the part of the school system itself, almost anywhere. (2) The schools do not make use of effective leadership where it does appear. The system seems so bound by hierarchical customs that the more advanced and subtle aspects of instruction are less well rewarded than the "ability to get along with the system." (3) Teachers are not in adequate contact with either the leadership in the central office or with teachers in their own or other schools. (4) Even in those areas where the task forces found strong leadership, there was doubt that this could be exerted because of the lack of linkage between the central supervisory staff, the school principals and the teachers. (5) A very large number of teachers are inadequately prepared to carry out their assigned responsibilities. Inadequate preparation is not necessarily tied to the teacher's certification status. (6) In both the elementary and secondary schools, subject-matter offerings are narrowly conceived. Possibly in the interest of doing a few things well, the schools too often have stripped the subjects to their most formal and least meaningful aspects, and have overlooked or, in some cases, subverted the subjects that might have given meaning to what is offered. The schools have turned reading, for instance, into a program of ritual code-breaking generally devoid of substantive meaning and have given other subjects (such as social studies, science and mathematics) short shrift or detoured them into further exercises of "reading." Yet, not enough children do, in fact, learn to read well.

It is recommended that a substantial rebuilding of instruction be undertaken. The entire staff must be drawn into the curriculum redevelopment effort. A substantial fraction (15 to 20 percent) of the teacher's time, as well as that of all other professionals, should be devoted to continuing in-service work designed to upgrade knowledge, skill and general professional competence. Responsibility for the quality of curriculum must be fixed on the classroom teacher and the principal who are then provided with the specialized support services which enable them to fulfill this role. Policies which require uniformity of schedule, materials, grouping and testing should be replaced by ones developed at the community and building level, subject to review, but not detailed control, by the central office. Staff members should be employed on a 12-month basis and scheduled into year-round school programs. They should be released periodically for continuing education and curriculum development.

It is recommended that curriculum coordinators or supervising teachers be employed at a ratio of one for each 20 teachers to improve the linkage between the school, the community office and the central office. The function of these coordinators would be to lead and consult in school study experimentation at the classroom level, calling upon the central office and on the community as a whole for specialized knowledge and assistance. Instructional teams should be organized with teacher-leaders who are provided the time to work with the members in improving instruction. Competent teachers can thus be promoted to leadership assignments which will not take them out of the classroom but will

put them in contact with a greater number of learners and teachers and provide greater professional and monetary rewards. Redevelopment is needed in every aspect of the school instructional program and in the balance of the program as a whole. It is recommended that there be a major shift in staff utilization to strengthen classroom instruction. The teacher and the principal must have the specialized personnel, services, time and resources to initiate continuing upgrading. Where local resources are already available for such leadership, it should be used. However, the District should seek aid from out of the system -- institutions of higher education, professional associations, governmental and private agencies anywhere in the metropolitan area and outside as well.

EARLY CHILDHOOD EDUCATION. Although there is recognition of the importance of pre-kindergarten programs, especially for the disadvantaged children, little is being done in the District during the regular school year. Even where programs are in operation, the curriculum is weak and uneven, diagnosis and planning inadequate.

It is recommended that the District extend schooling downward to incorporate what is now considered pre-schooling as a basic component of its "common school." Such an extension would make it possible to serve all of the four-year olds and selected three-year olds from disadvantaged areas who could profit from a specially designed early childhood program. The curriculum should be redeveloped, aimed at enhancing each child's cognitive growth, including extended perceptual skills, concept formation, abstract reasoning. Special emphasis should be placed on language and its functioning as a thinking tool. Such a program should be highly individualized, tailored to unlock each child's capacities, and sould include continuing diagnosis of each child's developmental processes.

It is recommended that the pre-kindergarten, kindergarten and first grades be conceived as an ungraded unit and planning undertaken to assure continuity, sequencing and articulation through this period. The major purpose of this ungraded unit would be to emphasize cognitive development, enhance positive feelings about one's self, develop understandings about people and things in the child's environment and insure physical growth and healthy development. Class size should not exceed 15 for the younger children and 20 in the older group. The trained leader's responsibility, in addition to instruction, would be to provide leadership for the team and be responsible for the program.

TEACHER RECRUITMENT, SELECTION AND RETENTION. The District's personnel operations are currently in a transitional stage where, inevitably, there is confusion as more dramatic and far-reaching changes are planned and implemented. Employees and external critics have criticized the whole gamut of policies and procedures relating to recruitment, selection, certification, assignment, transfer and promotion of teachers and administrators. The new personnel policies, the recent Teachers' Salary Act, and the election of a collective bargaining agent -- all will have an impact on personnel practices of all kinds, including assignment and transfer of teachers.

The District school system is faced with a number of serious interrelated personnel problems. Foremost among these is the shortage of qualified teachers. Ninety-five percent of the teachers new to the system in 1965-66 were certified as "temporary" employees. Obviously, a recruitment and selection problem of major proportions exists.

Unlike every other school system in the country, employment in the District is not separated from certification by a state department of education. Everywhere else, a state department licenses an individual to teach but this act is no assurance of a teach-

ing position. In the District, both the certifying and employing functions are performed by the local school system.

A problem unique to the District schools is the dependence on Congressional action for authority to hire additional new personnel. Since Congress usually waits until the fall to act on appropriations, the District is in a poor position to compete for the best applicants. It is patently absurd to expect the District to find competent teachers in the middle of an academic year. Because the District cannot hire newly authorized teachers legally before July 1, the system must tap a woefully drained reservoir of able staff members.

Whatever the causes of the present situation, the increasingly non-white staff teaches in schools where most of the pupils are also non-white. Where the teaching staff is white, so too, are the pupils. Few would argue against the desirability of an integrated staff. However, where the staffs of the District's elementary and junior high schools show a racial imbalance of 80:20, little is likely to be accomplished by mandatory transfer of present white staff members. Teachers dissatisfied with mandatory transfer (because of outright prejudice or lack of confidence in one's ability to teach disadvantaged students) could readily leave the District, as has the white parent. Unfortunately, no evidence exists to suggest that a white teacher who has worked well with highly motivated white youngsters can transfer her skills to youngsters from widely different socio-economic and racial backgrounds.

It is recommended that the District strive for better racial balance of staffs in all schools for all children -- Negro and white, poor and wealthy -- by improved tactics of recruitment and staffing rather than through mass reassignment of the few white teachers left in the District system. The District must be more color-conscious in its assignment of personnel to vacancies: white teachers in predominantly Negro schools and Negro teachers for predominantly white schools. If the District determines to mount some of the programs proposed in this report and to launch these successfully enough to build a nation-wide reputation for innovation and pioneering on the urban frontier then it will attract and retain teachers of good quality who are committed to urban education. Since presumably these projects and programs will be found throughout the city, judicious assignment of new teachers can forge the better balance.

It is recommended that Staff Development Centers be organized which would place responsibility for continuous selection, professional preparation and gradual induction jointly on colleges, universities and the District schools. It would fix and insure discharge of responsibility for staff education. Such a Center would provide for advancement and differentiated functions within the staff and teaching corps. It could design and widen experiences for a large group of potential professionals, administer specialized training for such important groups as cooperating teachers, team leaders, auxiliary workers, supervisors and administrators. Finally, the Staff Development Center would symbolize the positive image of the District schools as leaders in full-scale development of staff personnel from pre-induction to advancement.

It is recommended that the District, in cooperation with selected colleges and universities, seek to staff a pilot group of schools with a corps of truly "temporary" teachers -- educated young people, willing to take on the problems and challenges of the schools for a three-year period, under conditions designed to enhance their chances for success. These conditions would include continuous and close supervision during the first years of a paid internship, a reduced teaching load, planning time, opportunity to participate in seminars and other training experiences, chances for testing and experimenting with new materials and resources. Young people committed to this kind of a challenge, strengthened by a fair measure of success, might well be recruited into the

urban school system. At the end of three years, these young teachers, working with trained master teachers, could then decide whether or not to continue in the District schools. The planned program of induction and continued training would raise their qualifications for permanent positions should they desire them.

It is recommended that the teacher aide program and the use of paraprofessionals be expanded as an integral part of the District's educational program. Aside from its benefits to child and the teacher by "freeing the teacher to teach," the program has opened up new opportunities for the disadvantaged adult. Given training and direction and used as part of an instructional team, paraprofessionals can make a real contribution to the educational program by improving the adult to child ratio. Such staffing can also be a means for achieving greater diversification of faculty.

It is recommended that new personnel procedures be implemented as rapidly as possible: recruitment, certification and employment procedures must be modernized. The District should enter into reciprocal certification agreements with other states, expediting licensing and certification and encouraging teachers to move into District schools on the basis of regional accreditation. The Board of Examiners should become the District's certifying agent, clearly separated from teacher employment. The Personnel Department must consolidate and centralize its functions and services. It must eliminate much of the inefficient clerical bureaucracy which follows obsolete procedures and suffers from staff shortages. The procedural morass discourages some teachers from making job applications.

Obviously, the District needs a more positive and aggressive program to alter its present negative image. Modifying the physical appearance of buildings, the equipment available, the work load of teachers and the quality of opportunity for professional development available to all teachers would eventually brighten that image. But the social milieu of the schools and their populations are likely to remain rather constant during the years ahead. The central task, therefore, is three-fold: (1) to capitalize on the problems and conditions of teaching in the District schools by treating them as a laboratory for professional experience and growth; (2) to reward success in personal and professional terms; and (3) to cause interested young people to see the problems, the challenge and the rewards of teaching in the District.

SCHOOL OFFICERS. The quality of leadership provided at all levels, building and central office, is critical in determining how effectively classroom teachers will be able to perform. Of all the facets of the District's complex personnel operations, possibly none is subject to more misunderstanding than the promotion practices and the procedures for selection of school officers. In the absence of specific preparatory programs for administrative and supervisory personnel, the requirements for promotions must be enunciated clearly.

There is no eligibility list, even for positions frequently vacant, such as assistant principalships. The net effect of the lack of clarity is to raise doubts about the integrity of the system for promotion. At the very least, there are questions centering around the age-old issue of "what you know versus who you know." Worst is the widespread assumption that the promotion policies do not really provide equal opportunity for all candidates. The prime example is that Negro principals are not found in predominantly white schools, a pattern which would have been almost impossible to maintain had there been an eligibility list. Despite the recent preponderance of "Negro appointments," there still is a feeling that discrimination functions at the top. It will persist as long as the present practices continue.

Unlike some large cities which have substantial Negro, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American and other minority-group pupil populations but very few educational leaders from these groups, two-thirds of all District of Columbia's educational officers are Negro. The Board's problem is one of determining what the educational needs of the District are and which individuals possess the talent and leadership potential needed to fill these needs. While the Board should be color-conscious and should actively encourage qualified Negro applicants, race must not be the sole criterion in making appointments. If the District is viewed as a "Negro school system," all efforts to improve balance in staff and administration will be stymied.

It is recommended that eligibility lists be set up to end the practice -- wasteful of time and morale -- of duplicating procedures every time a vacancy occurs. Maintenance of eligibility lists, based on annual or semi-annual examinations would speed filling officer vacancies. Morale in the system would rise as key positions were filled from it and leadership vacuums disappeared.

It is recommended that the District Schools develop a systematic pattern for preparing administrators, beginning with an administrative internship program. Instituting an internship program would permit on-the-job assessment of prospective candidates while training was underway. Field evaluation, focusing on interaction and critical personality variables, is more valid than dubious rankings based solely on brief interviews, paper qualifications and longevity. Internships and general recruitment of individuals for administrative and supervisory posts should not be restricted to District personnel. The District system must actively seek people with new ideas, insights, talents and enthusiasm -- wherever they may exist. If the Washington schools are to strive for racial balance in their administrative staffs as well as teacher populations, then the District must aggressively seek talent, white and Negro, wherever it may be. The combination of an internship program plus an eligibility list could do much to restore confidence in the administrative leadership in the District's schools. Unless an active recruitment and training are undertaken, the racial balance question will become academic in the District as the number of whites applying for lower-level officer positions (such as assistant principalships) continues to dwindle.

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS. There are many structural defects in the present organization that interfere with effective operation of the school system: the lack of intermediate districts or subdivisions which would make the superintendency a manageable position; the inability to carry on long-range planning; the reluctance of line personnel to impose on staff leader time; inadequate articulation between levels; dispersal of responsibility for instructional improvement; fragmented supervision. The present organization has accumulated over the years, adding complexity and weaknesses. Far too many individuals report to a single person to permit effective discharge of responsibilities. The lines of communication waver. By failing to distinguish between officers with advisory status and those with line authority, the organization undermines coordination. In many instances, operating functions are not grouped logically for effective administration and synchronization. Reporting relationships are unclear in some areas, duplicative in others. Finally, the absence of a central office with adequate space for work, meeting and parking seriously curbs efficiency.

The reorganization proposed would make the individual school the basic unit, attaching a number of specialists (full and part-time) whose responsibility it would be to help develop standards of excellent learning and teaching, assisting teachers and others to implement these standards and auditing the results. Three types of specialist assistance would be provided the school as needed: (1) Instructional services, including general

supervision, subject area supervision and audio-visual aids; (2) Pupil personnel services, including guidance, special education, psychological testing, health and attendance; and (3) Administrative support, including teacher personnel services, equipment and supplies, lunchroom operation and building maintenance.

It is recommended that the Community Boards of Education be elected by voters from the district involved for three-year terms. These boards should be empowered to choose a Community Superintendent from a list of candidates submitted by the Superintendent of Schools and approved by the District Board of Education.

Jurisdiction of the Community Board of Education should cover: setting policies that do not conflict with central school board rules; advising the local superintendent of community sentiment towards the school program and needs of the district; consulting on the budget for the local district; helping select personnel for the schools within its jurisdiction; approving appointment of new principals and area educational officers. In sum, the Community Board of Education should be responsible for the operation of the educational program locally. Its relationship with the District of Columbia Board of Education might be modeled after that of the local school districts and the state boards, the former responsible for local operation, the latter having overall responsibility.

It is recommended that eight Community Superintendents be appointed as heads of decentralized sub-systems, charged with overall responsibility for the operation of the elementary and secondary schools in the areas. They would supply special assistance to the schools; coordinate the educational programs between levels; serve as chief administrative officers for citizens on the Community Boards of Education. Were each of these sub-systems of approximately equal size, the pupil population served would be approximately 20,000. Such systems could improve the effectiveness of school management and link the schools more closely to their communities.

The amount of authority and autonomy vested in the Community Board of Education and in the Community Superintendent are the determining factors as to the value of decentralization. If the local boards are given complete responsibility and authority, including power to allocate funds, the present system would split into six or eight nearly independent school districts. On the other hand, if the boards are restricted to serving in an advisory capacity, tokenism and scarcely any real decentralization will result. It is recommended that local boards be given considerable autonomy to operate community school systems as independent units.

It is recommended that the Community Superintendent be made responsible for the operation of all schools within his assigned geographical area, except for vocational high schools and for the coordination of services to the schools. He would be aided by a staff including a Director of Instructional Services, Director of Business, Director of Personnel; an Assistant for Planning and Program Evaluation and an Assistant for School-Community Relations.

Two programs should continue as District-wide departments: Special Education and Vocational, Adult and Continuing Education. Although substantial numbers of pupils are involved in various Special Education programs, there are not enough pupils with any one type of disability to support local area programs. The Department of Special Education should conduct diagnosis and placement, instructional programs and services and organize staff training. Similarly, the vocational high schools, adult education centers and related programs should serve the entire District. Community schools would develop adult programs. The present vocational high schools could expand into new operations, such as Area Skills Centers for students from several high schools. The development of programs at the Washington Technical Institute and the Federal City College will have

an impact on vocational-technical and adult education in the District. In the meantime, such programs should function city-wide, with the central office staff providing most of the service functions.

It is recommended that the central office be reorganized into three major divisions: (1) Planning, Innovation and Research; (2) Personnel Services; and (3) Administrative Services. The Division of Planning, Innovation and Research would sustain program development, innovation, research and long-range planning for all schools. It would support program development, innovation, research and long-range planning for all schools. It would support program evaluation. With the District's unique budgetary process and relationships with Congress, budget and legislation are in the divisional package: new programs must be translated into budget terms and justified for legislators. Four departments would comprise this division: Program Planning and Development; Research and Evaluation; Budget and Legislation; and Long-Range Planning and Innovation. The Division of Personnel Services would coordinate all system-wide personnel activities involving pupils, staff and employees. Through its two departments, the division will relate to the operating units in the field. Each Community Superintendent will have a Director of Pupil Personnel Services and a Director of Staff Personnel. While most staff in Pupil Personnel Services would be assigned to the community offices, a small force would be needed at central headquarters for system-wide functions. The Division of Administrative Services would be assigned system-wide responsibility for coordinating three departments: Business Administration, Buildings and Grounds, and Automated Information Systems. The Community Superintendents would report to a Deputy Superintendent in charge of Community School Coordination.

The Executive Deputy Superintendent of Schools would have four officers responsible to him: the Deputy Superintendent in charge of the Division of Community School Coordination; the Associate Superintendent for Planning, Innovation and Research, the Associate Superintendent for Personnel Services and the Associate Superintendent for Administrative Services. The Executive Deputy would be the Superintendent's chief staff officer with a span of control that would permit effective management. His responsibilities would permit him to act as an executive with respect to day-to-day operations and decision making.

The Superintendent of Schools would be directly responsible to the Board of Education for the operation of the school system. The lines of responsibility and the allocated authority should make it possible for him to give his full attention to the functions of the chief school administrator -- advising the Board on policy, executing Board policy, relating to the public and to Congress and providing the leadership needed to build confidence in the school system's ability to provide good education for all. The need for strong creative leadership at the top level is obvious; this organization would make it feasible.

The prime argument for decentralization is the conviction that the educational program will be qualitatively improved to the extent that the school, parents and community are brought into a more meaningful relationship with one another. The reservations about decentralization rest on the lack of clarity concerning "more meaningful relationships." At the heart of the matter are questions involving: (1) the allocation of power and control (usually discussed in terms of "delegation of authority"); (2) the nature of accountability of individuals and groups (i.e., who is to be held responsible for the child's progress or lack thereof); (3) the appropriate areas of involvement of parents and citizens in the educational process (determination of curriculum, choice of instructional methods, selection of textbooks and other materials; appointment of principals and other staff, etc.); and (4) the authority to delegate certain functions legally assigned to the Board of Education and its administrative officers.

The proposal to reorganize the District schools has two aims: (1) to provide an effective school organization which will facilitate teaching and learning, and (2) to decentralize control of the schools in order to shorten communication lines and to involve parents and citizens in the educational process.

COMMUNITY SCHOOLS. The District schools tend not be be in touch with the communities they should serve; communication is poor and mutually supporting programs are rare. Since communities differ, the varieties of services and leadership should be responses to joint planning by school and community. A school which serves it community will be an educational center in the broadest sense -- a place where children, youth and adults have opportunities for study and learning. Beyond that, the school may also function as a neighborhood community center; a center for community services (health, counseling, legal, employment and welfare); and as the center of community life, catalyzing action for study and solution of significant neighborhood problems.

It is recommended that the schools be transformed into community schools, collecting and offering the variety of services and opportunities its neighborhood needs. Such schools would operate for 12 to 14 hours a day, six days a week and year-round. While the school building need not house all of the services the community needs, it should open ready access to these necessities. As an educational institution, the community should use the neighborhood and the city as a laboratory for study, supplementing classroom, teacher and building resources. A community school will not emerge by tacking on programs indiscriminately to the normal school offering. Instead, it must be planned in conjunction with other agencies and groups within the community.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION. The survey of community attitudes disclosed a lack of confidence in the Board of Education, the school administration and in the school "power structure" generally. The Board must devise clear, constructive and decisive action in the immediate future to restore this confidence.

The Board of Education is not a board but nine individuals with quite different perceptions of their roles and relationships. Like many school boards, it operates intuitively, not from clear analysis of policy regarding its responsibilities and functions. Even an elected board or one appointed by some new procedure would still have to work out its own roles and responsibilities as a prime move toward regaining the confidence of the community, the professional staff and Congress. The pending proposals for an elected board of education have merit, providing that there are methods for persuading qualified, high-caliber candidates to campaign and run for election. The first requirement for a board member must be high quality, intelligent commitment to education; if "representation" can be achieved in terms of other criteria without sacrificing this quality, well and good.

It is recommended that the Board of Education undertake a continuing program of self-education. The Board has no real opportunity to learn what is going on in the district schools and elsewhere in the nation, to talk about ideas and developments without committing itself to immediate action, or to examine its relationships with the Superintendent and the professional staff. Never free to educate itself about its role and responsibilites, to combine long-term planning with immediate pressures, the Board will inevitably continue to plunge into recurrent crises. The Board should seek a different interpretation and/or new legislation which will permit it to have informal discussions and, when appropriate, executive sessions for deliberative purposes only. Such sessions would permit the Board opportunities for study, presentation of alternatives and examination of issues. All decision making and discussion of current issues would,

of course, remain open to the public. The informal, private sessions would not involve caucusing but would provide time for reflection and study. There is no logical reason why Board members should be deprived the opportunity to conduct meetings with other members and with the Superintendent in order to make more intelligent decisions, providing no formal actions are taken during such sessions.

It is recommended that the Board of Education develop a comprehensive Manual of Policies and Procedures for the District Schools. An examination of past Board minutes, directives and other sources would provide the Board with a much-needed history of policy actions and indicate where revision and reformulation are necessary. The manual would help the Board distinguish between policy (Board of Education sphere) and administrative (staff sphere) actions. Board of Education actions and policies should be given wide dissemination to the entire professional staff so that they will be informed first-hand of decisions made.

It is recommended that the Board of Education staff be enlarged to include Board aides or research assistants and an enlarged secretarial staff. The chief function of the assistants would be to contact appropriate individuals, departments and agencies, requesting information or analyses required by Board members. The aides might prepare working papers and memoranda for Board use or simply transmit material provided by the central staff. A Department of Planning, Innovation and Research has been recommended for the central administrative staff. This department would be the basic supplier of position papers, data analyses and other information as requested. The assistants' function would be to follow up Board requests and serve as general aides to the members rather than conduct research. Additional secretarial help is needed for members' correspondence.

It is recommended that an Office of School-Community Relations be established to produce complete and authoritative information to the various school publics. If community boards are established, each served by an assistant for community affairs, that office could handle the local information load. However, an adequate public information and community relations program for the District as a whole is a necessity. Such an office could also strengthen internal communication among the professional, administrative and ancillary staffs.

It is recommended that Board members be reimbursed for expenses incurred while on official business. The question of compensation and/or reimbursement for Board members is one tinged with various subtleties. The arguments concerning compensation are related to whether payment will permit persons to serve who might otherwise be unable to do so, whether payment affects the "public service" commitment of members and whether it results in members becoming more involved in day-by-day administrative detail as "employees" of the system. The case seems clear for reimbursing members for expenses incurred or for providing an amount of $2400, in lieu of expenses.

INTEGRATION IN THE DISTRICT SCHOOLS. Racial imbalance and re-segregation are the facts that the District Schools face with respect to its population. When a school system is more than 90 percent pupils of one race, to speak in any ordinary sense of integration, desegregation or racial balance on a system-wide scale would be pointless. Devices that might further desegregation in other cities are now largely irrelevant in Washington. However difficult the present situation may be, the fundamental task of the District Schools is the same as that for every other American school system: to provide for every child, whatever his race, education of a quality that will enable him to make the most of himself and to take his place as a free person in an open society.

For the foreseeable future, the only reasonable assumption is that the racial composition of the Washington public schools will remain about as it is. Exchanges with neighboring districts and other approaches to integration should be promoted vigorously and every new possibility should be pursued, but none of the improvements now in sight can change the basic problem. Until broad-range metropolitan solutions can be devised and put into effect, the task of the Board, the staff, the community and the federal government will be to provide first-class education in a school system where all but a small percentage of the students are Negroes and a substantial proportion are disadvantaged by poverty and its associated handicaps.

It would be premature and a mistake to conclude that no Negro child can possibly obtain an acceptable education in an all-Negro school. On the other hand, it would be absurd to deny or to ignore the special problems that a racially isolated school faces in preparing its pupils for life in an open society. If children are to obtain reliable knowledge about people whose backgrounds differ from their own, if they are to learn to respect rather than distrust difference, if they are to appreciate the commonalities that unite as well as the distinctions that divide humanity, those who attend segregated schools must obviously receive special help.

The effectiveness of any school is due to a number of factors and they are well-known. Wherever there are first-class teachers, imaginative curricula, carefully selected books and materials and physical arrangements that stimulate as well as shelter, it is safe to predict a productive school. But students of all ages learn from their classmates quite as surely as they do from their teachers. The composition of the student body makes a substantial difference. To leave that factor wholly to chance is no more sensible than it would be to assign teachers or select textbooks at random. Integration may not be essential, but it is highly desirable. The point is that whatever other good qualities a school may possess, it will be even better, for the purposes of democratic education, if it is integrated.

If eliminating racial isolation is accepted as a sufficiently important social and political goal to warrant necessary action by governments, private agencies, and families, it can be accomplished. It will require action on a metropolitan scale and participation by local, state and federal governments. It will depend upon new approaches to public and private housing policy, extensive assistance to enable families to choose and acquire new homes and sustained involvement by business and voluntary groups. Alterations in the structure and relations of the governmental units will be required. Financial incentives in the form of rent subsidies, favorable mortgage terms and tax abatement will be necessary. Most importantly, such changes will call for comprehensive metropolitan planning in which educational planning plays a large part.

But none of this is likely to happen -- indeed all of it is certain not to happen -- until enough Marylanders, Virginians, Washingtonians and Americans are convinced that their interests will be better served by making the national capital area a well-integrated metropolitan community than by keeping it the white-encircled black ghetto that it is now.

It is recommended that the District initiate joint planning for one or two experimental metropolitan school parks for 10,000 to 20,000 pupils. While metropolitan school desegregation is obviously not immediately possible, it could be attained to a substantial extent by establishing metropolitan school parks. The typical park would be composed of a number of separate school buildings, each of which would house a primary, middle or secondary school with a student body of whatever size would produce the most favorable educational situation. Thus, elementary schools might accomodate a few hundred students, while the secondary units would probably be designed for the larger

student bodies that make more varied curricula educationally and financially feasible. Entering students would be distributed among the schools in the park so as to assure a well-integrated combination in each school. The "secret" of the school park is that, properly planned and administered, it could provide for all its pupils better education than they now receive.

It is recommended that several Learning Centers, each with a specialized function, be developed around the District's borders. Environmental sciences, fine and performing arts, humanities and social sciences, world of work -- these are illustrative of the areas in which learning might be centered. Each Learning Center would be provided with a highly qualified staff, all of the equipment and resources it needed and full instructional flexibility. Students would be scheduled for the centers as appropriate to their needs, leaving their home schools for a few afternoons or days per week or for longer blocks of time. The purpose would be to provide the richest assemblage of learning resources, personal and material, possible for the largest number of students as required by them. Each of the centers would serve the entire District and, by special arrangement, some of the neighboring districts as well.

It is recommended that the District take action to reduce the racial isolation of its present student body. Every present means should be used and as many as possible created to encourage contact between the Washington schools and those of surrounding communities. Opportunities for interracial association are available through cooperative arrangements with non-public schools in the District and the suburbs as well.

Each year thousands of school children come to Washington to visit its places of historic and cultural interest. If substantial numbers of students of the District schools were specifically prepared to serve as hosts and guides to such visitors, the results could be of considerable benefit to the local students as well as to those from other parts of the country. In preparing to serve as guides, Washington students could become better acquainted with their city and the related historic and cultural subject matter. More importantly, they would find invaluable opportunities to improve their communication skills and their self-confidence. At the same time, the visitors, most of whom would be of a different race than their hosts, would themselves profit from closer acquaintance with children whom they might not otherwise meet under comparably favorable circumstances.

In planning curriculum, selecting experiences, producing materials and using the resources of Washington, every effort must be made to provide "instructional desegregation." Racial balance, some optimum proportion of Negroes and whites, has only meant an initial step toward integration and overcoming racial isolation. Unless steps are taken toward building an educational program which yields skills, values, attitudes, self-concepts, strong ego and sound mental health, much that is hoped for when steps are taken to improve racial balance cannot be attained. Compensatory programs must go far beyond the limited goal of improving basic education skills.

It is recommended that the District take steps to provide a better racial balance among its school faculties. With even the greatest ingenuity, the possibility of introducing significant numbers of white students into the Washington schools will be severely limited for the foreseeable future, but the opportunities for the better integration of school faculties are much more promising. This objective will not be reached by the mere deployment of the present staff.

Four assumptions should guide Board personnel policies: (1) A racially integrated staff in each school and for the system as a whole may be expected to produce better educational results than a segregated staff -- for all students, Negro and white; (2)

The necessary diversity of staffing cannot be attained through a "colorblind" personnel policy -- decisions must deliberately compensate for a variety of forms of racial imbalance; (3) In view of the current racial imbalance in the Washington staff and the obvious obligation to protect the rights of the tenured and probationary teachers now employed, special efforts will be required to recruit white teachers in the necessary numbers and at suitable levels of competence even though this will lead to the accusation of favoring white applicants at the expense of Negroes; and (4) The problems of the District schools are not restricted to racial isolation but stem also from the presence of a large proportion of impoverished and culturally disadvantaged students who require the services of teachers with unusual competence. While comparative salary levels are not to be discounted as an attraction, persons of the type now needed in city schools are more interested in working conditions that offer them a reasonable chance to use their skills and to exercise initiative.

It is recommended that the District seek staff diversification through teacher exchanges and effective use of volunteers and paraprofessionals. Visiting appointments and exchanges should be arranged for carefully selected teachers from other school systems and areas. Besides bringing in able outsiders, exchange arrangements would enable members of the District staff to broaden their perspectives by teaching in other places. Efforts should be made to attract exceptional teachers for one- or two-year assignments from other parts of the country who would come as net additions to the District staff. The increased use of volunteers, general assistants to teachers, librarians and principals, should be expanded. Volunteers might also consist of very highly qualified persons in the arts, sciences, professions, business or government who would spend several hours per week or per month working directly with teachers or students to strengthen instructional programs and broaden the range of knowledge available in the schools.

It is recommended that the District test administrative approaches to better socio-economic balance. The schemes that might be explored as a means of better socio-economic integration include all of those ordinarily proposed to advance racial integration: changes in attendance areas to include neighborhoods of varying types; pairing of schools; open enrollment, preferably with free transportation; and the designation of clusters or complexes of schools to serve jointly larger and more varied attendance areas. In comparing percentages, proportions and patterns of organization, it is easy to overlook the relation of data and decision to the peculiarly personal nature of the educational enterprise. From the selection of sites and the design of buildings to the appointment of teachers and the formation of classes, the ultimate value of any action is the degree to which it enables the student as a person to learn more effectively and to develop his capacities more fully.

It is recommended that the District intensify its efforts to develop individualized programs. Despite the false dichotomies that are frequently suggested, there is no natural opposition between integration and "quality" education, nor is it true that if only integration is achieved all other educational advantages will inevitably follow. In a genuinely comprehensive and well-balanced student body, the need for individualized attention and compensatory programs will be even more evident than in a less varied group. Contrasts in ability, achievement and aspiration can encourage extra effort and raise the common level of performance, but they also reveal differences and weaknesses that teachers as well as students might not be conscious of in a less stimulating environment.

To offer all children equal education remains a necessary beginning, but equality among schools is only the first step. The District's sights should be set not on making its schools equal, but on devising whatever means are required to enable every child to develop his potential and to get his chance. Whatever his possibilities,

wherever he begins, he should have the help he needs to reach maturity prepared to compete on fair terms in an open society. To live with this conception of equal opportunity, the community must be willing and the schools must be able to furnish unequal education. Unequal education to promote equal opportunity may seem a radical proposal, but it is in fact a well-established practice with respect to the physically and mentally handicapped under the name of "special education." It must now be broadened to include unequal, exceptional education for every child who needs it.

ORGANIZATION FOR INSTRUCTION. The study clearly indicated that the tracking system was as often observed in the breach as it was in adherence to any set of basic tenets. Although tracking practices by no means account for the grave difficulties in which the Washington schools presently find themselves, there are sufficient inequities, inconsistencies and inadequacies in the plan to warrant its abandonment. Thus, the first recommendation is that any form of city-wide tracking, based on pre-determined city-wide criteria be abolished and that other plans for coping with the great range of pupil abilities, aptitudes, motivations and interests be substituted instead.

It is recommended that no ability grouping be practiced in the early childhood and primary units. Pupils should be grouped in random fashion with special consideration being given, when necessary, to placing pupils with teachers who are best able to work with them. Such a policy must not preclude the establishment of special classes for the severely emotionally disturbed, the educable and trainable mentally retarded as well as those with sight and hearing deficiencies or other physical disabilities which make it necessary for them to have special care or special instruction. Admission to such programs should be based on criteria determined by specialists in the field. While initial screening should be done by teachers and helping personnel in each school, no pupil should be admitted to a special education program without a thorough diagnosis by expert practitioners. The age at which children should be admitted to the various special education programs will vary with the particular disability.

Although sectioning by ability is not recommended in the early grades, it is suggested that teachers make maximum use of flexible within-class grouping. It is suggested that such flexible grouping be used consistently so that much of the instruction is in small groups, increasing the possibility for individual attention and insuring that each pupil is actively engaged in learning, rather than "tuned out," as often happens when the whole class is taught.

Pilot ungraded programs should be started in a number of schools to encompass the first three grades. Such programs would enable pupils to be taught at various levels, regardless of age or grade placement. Some pupils would be able to complete the unit in two years, others might need four years. The major effort would be to insure that all pupils be helped to learn the basic skills. To undertake such a program would require curriculum and materials development at the heart of the organizational change and help with planning for a completely individualized program. It would require a continuous assessment and diagnosis to determine which children need help and which should be encouraged to move more or less rapidly than is normal.

It is recommended that no ability grouping by class be practiced in grades 4-6 but that no class have a reading range more than 2.5 to 3 years wide. This range will result in considerable overlap in reading ability from class to class, as well as considerable range within each class. Therefore, extensive use should be made of subgrouping within the classroom. Wherever possible, specialized teachers should be made available for mathematics and science as well as art, music and physical education.

Skills centers should be established to which individual pupils or small groups can go for help in the areas in which they are weak. If adequately staffed and equipped (making maximum use of auto-instructional materials), such a center could accomodate as many as 20 pupils at one time for any area. Either in the skills centers or in the school libraries, places should be provided for the more able learners to engage in independent activities, pursue special interests or move ahead in some basic subjects. Selected teachers should develop completely individualized classroom procedures. A complete diagnosis and assessment program should continue through these grades for planning purposes.

It is recommended that ability grouping by subject begin at grade 7 and continue through grade 8. At this level, departmentalized teaching is generally instituted and pupils can be placed in different sections for different subjects. The criteria for placement should be developed on the basis of the school's population rather than on the basis of District or national norms. By the time pupils reach the seventh grade, the school is confronted not only with a large spread in ability to cope with academic material but also with considerable differentiation of the various abilities and special talents. Although such variations exist even in the primary grades, the extent of the differences increases with age and with extended schooling. Developed values, interests, aspirations for the future, as well as experienced success and failure, all combine to strengthen an individual's performance in one area of the curriculum, weaken it in another. Although there are pupils who appear to perform consistently high, mediocre or low, the achievement profiles of most pupils tend to show considerable variation from one subject to another.

In addition to regular grouping by section and subject, an "honors" class should be established at each grade level for those students who rank in the top 10 or 15 percent of their grade across all subjects. In view of the particular importance of such selection procedures for the disadvantaged pupils who do not reach high standards by national norms, it is recommended that, in schools in which there is a sizable proportion of middle-class pupils, the membership of the "honors" sections be expanded to include the top 10 or 15 percent of the disadvantaged population as well as those who would otherwise qualify. The skills center program should be continued through these grades. Auto-instructional materials and all appropriate technological aids should be utilized. Optimum guidance for secondary school planning should come only after careful diagnosis and assessment procedures are used.

It is recommended that students be grouped by subject only at the high school level. The need for flexible, subject-by-subject grouping, based on achievement norms of each school, is even greater at the high school level than in the earlier grades. Throughout grades 9 to 12, several sections should be established in each subject with student placement determined mainly on the basis of past performance in each particular subject. Performance level should be based on the norms for each particular school. Such a plan would imply individual programming for each pupil, allowing for maximum flexibility in course selection as well as course level. Each high school should set its own criteria for membership in special "top" sections in any given subject. Whether designated "honors" or by some other name, these classes should represent a high degree of recognition for the most able students in that school. Such grouping should be accompanied by clear determination of the scope and pace of learning with which students will be confronted. The most able students, as well as the slowest in any one subject, need to be exposed to content and pace which will be just enough beyond their present level of knowledge to be challenging, but not so far beyond as to be frustrating. At each level, expectations should be higher than the demonstrated performance level of the pupils, but they should also be flexible, dropped when the pupil is floundering, raised when he shows success.

It is recommended that curriculum variations through grade 10 be limited to the level and pace of academic work rather than enrollment in vocational programs. The emphasis during the first years of high school should be placed on acquainting the pupils with all possible options and helping them to see the relevance of their school work to various occupations or educational choices. Business and industry look for prospective employees who have mastered the basic literacy skills and who are trainable, rather than for those who have a specific vocational skill, one which may well be outdated by the time the young person is ready for employment. Although considerable differentiation of abilities has taken place by the ninth grade, most young people have not yet reached the "vocational or career maturity" to make valid choices regarding future careers on the basis of perceived strengths and weaknesses at age 14. The premature determination of a course of study is most serious when it limits the individual's options for the future. Thus, the election of a course of academic studies would enable the individual to prepare for college or go to a commercial, technical or trade program. But the election of a vocational or commercial course can limit his options to the single area in which his studies fall. Skills Centers should be continued and be carefully tailored to the interests and concerns of the student. The Skills Centers should represent completely individualized instruction, where the techniques and materials are determined for each student.

It is recommended that pilot non-graded programs be developed at the secondary school. Several school systems have planned and implemented non-graded sequences at the secondary level. Curriculum content, scope and sequence have been developed and tested. Essential services to insure continuing diagnosis, assessment and individualization have been provided. While none of these patterns would probably apply to the District secondary schools, they do provide some guidance for developing such non-graded secondary programs. This will require time for staff planning, teacher training and materials production.

These recommendations are aimed at bringing about a closer approximation of the match between a pupil's level of ability to perform specific academic tasks and the instruction provided him. Although by no means perfected, the experience and technology already exist which could eventually convert the ideal of individualization of instruction into a reality. For the present, however, while teachers are being prepared, equipment acquired and materials developed for individualized instruction (which does not preclude small or large group work when indicated), some procedures for narrowing the range of ability and performance levels have to be used. The above recommendations address themselves to the demands of the present; many of them become less relevant as the schools move toward truly individualized instruction.

SCHOOL FINANCE AND THE BUDGETARY PROCESS. The question of financing the District Schools has been one of considerable controversy for many years. It is alleged that the schools are starved financially, that inadequate revenues mean unsatisfactory educational programs and poor student achievement; that unsympathetic treatment of the school budget requests by the District Commissioners and by Congressional Committees dramatizes the need for fiscal independence; and that "red tape" frustrates efficient financial administration. Virtually the same problems have been cited by every major survey of the schools; whatever their validity, their persistence is remarkable.

The estimated total current expenditures per pupil in average daily attendance for Washington for 1966-67 was $693, slightly above the average of $607 for the 15 largest cities in the nation. When the expenditures are adjusted to take out certain categorical federal programs, the estimated per pupil expenditure was $583, again just above the average. Thus, the level of support and resources allocated the school are

about average for the nation's large cities. School districts are spending less than Washington. Presumably, those which are spending considerably more are providing a richer educational program for their students.

To a school district which should be seeking to become an exemplary urban educational system, the conclusion is inescapable: additional resources must be committed to education so that Washington can compete for the finest staff available, the best educational materials, and the most adequate facilities. This conclusion is underscored when one considers the fact that many school children in the District have unusually complex and severe educational problems which can be met only through special programs and services which cost a great deal of money -- as much as three or four times the cost of meeting the educational needs of the child whose home environment has already done a good portion of the job even before the child enters school. It is clear from research evidence that a considerable increase in educational expenditures is needed to help educate disadvantaged children. This is not to propose any lessening of effort in educating children from middle and higher income families but rather to make meaningful a real program of compensatory education.

It is recommended that the District allocate its educational resources on the basis of educational need. If the nation, and particularly Congress, are seriously interested in achieving meaningful equality in common schools, the traditional fiscal structure of public education must be radically altered to permit resources to flow where they are needed rather than only where they can be locally afforded. Should the District implement the proposal for decentralization, along with administrative decentralization would have to come a differential allocation of resources to specific areas and even buildings on the basis of educational needs of those pupils in attendance. One way to accomplish this would be to use a "need formula" to rank schools for aid and allocations.

Cities tend to distribute teachers and other resources "equally" among neighborhoods through the use of standards or ratios, applied more or less uniformly throughout the system. These standards apply to pupil-teacher ratios and dollar-per-pupil expenditures for supplies and equipment. No decision of the Board of Education or its administration is more important than when these ratios are set. In Washington, as in most cities, once established they are seldom reviewed or evaluated systematically by the Board or by the public. Some exceptions to standard ratios are occasionally permitted, particularly where federal grants are involved (e.g., P.L. 874 and Title I, EASEA) but, in general, the formulas are an inflexible but expedient way to allocate resources on an apparently uniform and "fair" basis. It is possible to develop a set of formulas to allocate resources -- including teachers, supplies, books and other materials -- among decentralized and administrative units in inverse proportion to the ranking of the areas on impact aid factors.

The school's research staff should evaluate the formulas annually. Such evaluation would be an integral part of planning a Programmed Budget. As a principle, the Board should allocate a lump sum for supplies and equipment, leaving to local administrators at the building or area level the detailed decisions on specific purposes.

It is recommended that the District seek a different basis for determining the federal contribution. Two proposals under consideration would fix the federal payment on a formula basis rather than relying completely on the occasional beneficence of Congressional appropriating committees. One calls for a federal payment equal to 25 percent of the District's General Fund Budget while the other would set the federal payment at the amount that would be collected if federal property and activity were taxable.

Either of these two plans are superior to the present arrangement. The Board of Education and the Commissioners, now required to plan their finances on five-year projections, need some way to project federal as well as District revenues. Not only is the present arrangement unpredictable, but the amount is inadequate and inequitable. Few big city school systems receive as little as 16 percent of their revenues from their state governments and most have at least twice that proportion. Twenty-five percent should be regarded by responsible Congressmen as a minimum level at which to set the federal payment. As District and school expenditures rise within the years ahead and particularly as the schools take serious steps toward meeting the extraordinary educational needs of District children, the federal payments will have to join the District's property tax in providing major shares of the needed revenue.

It is recommended that the provisions for long-range budget planning be substantially improved. The existence of a competent staff for long-range planning and evaluation would make possible assembling such evidence as is needed for sounder justification of budget requests. The inadequacy of long-range planning -- a situation which is just now beginning to be tackled -- is responsible for some of the difficulties in justifying capital outlay requests. It is clear that long-range budget projections documenting the need for substantial increases in expenditures for the schools would increase chances of getting adequate funds in future years. In addition, sound planning could help the District and Congress make an overall commitment to education in Washington.

Not only does this weakness in developing long-range plans affect the ability to justify budget requests but it also has an influence on such things as (a) the insulation of the Board of Education from the school administration in terms of the ability of the latter to participate in policy decision-making; (b) the feeling on the part of the community that developments within the school system occur without consultation and too late to permit realistic expression of opinion; and (c) the ability of the school system to create a favorable climate of acceptance for its policies through intelligent public relations. It weakens the school system's position in relation to other planning groups, in those situations where disagreements arise concerning the future of the District of Columbia.

Assignments of priorities and justifications, especially in the case of capital budget requests, require far better planning, research and evaluation. The regular employment of educational and social science consultants to prepare research-based materials in support of proposed school programs is essential.

Policy and planning development, both on the part of the Board of Education and the school administration, would be facilitated by a staff which would provide background memoranda for discussion of alternative policies and goals. This, in turn, could lead to a closer relationship between the school administration and the Board of Education in matters of policy development. A major effort must be made to convince Congressmen of the fact that substantially greater per-pupil expenditure rates are indeed justified for the District of Columbia.

It is recommended that the District seek greater flexibility in the use of funds in program development and the establishment of new organizational forms. Operating as it does within restrictions of a line-item budget, cumbersome budgetary process, timing delays in authorization and appropriation, and requirements of civil service regulations, the school system lacks the flexibility necessary to adapt to changing educational needs and innovational opportunities. The budgetary process is a long and complicated one which creates additional constraints on the introduction of new programs within the system as well as the maintenance of old ones. Whether or not

some form of home rule involving fiscal autonomy either for the District as a whole or for the Board of Education alone is forthcoming, it should be possible to get Congress to modify its line-item budget requirements in the case of the school system or, at the very least, to make provision for the establishment of some discretionary funds. If full autonomy is not possible at this point and if there are questions about the impact of such home rule on the District, certainly some areas of freedom within the existing structure are indeed feasible for the school system now.

The District government and its schools should be permitted to issue long-term bonds to be repaid from local property tax levies. The maximum amount of school bonds outstanding at any given time should be regulated as a percentage of the assessed or full market value of property in the District. Furthermore, it is possible that a bonding procedure would represent a net savings of money; the 4-3/4% Treasury interest rate during the last half of 1966 was much higher than the interest on bonds for a good many school districts during that period.

It is recommended that the District develop and implement a Planning Programming and Budgeting (PPB) System. Development of a PPB system is a complex task but it could be achieved within a few years were the Board to direct its administrative staff to give this assignment high priority. The complexity arises from two sources: (1) the programs must be structured along the organization's goals and these are not always as easily or as precisely defined as is necessary for this kind of operation; and (2) once the goals and program categories are identified, the technical process of reclassifying expenditure items into new categories requires considerable time.

Once operative, the Board should expect a PPB System to provide data on expenditures in at least four major classifications. The first two are subject-matter and grade-level programs. A typical specific category, "teaching reading in regular first-grade classrooms," for instance, would include expenditures for that part of the teacher's salary proportional to the amount of time devoted to instruction in reading, books, a portion of the operation and maintenance costs for that classroom in the school, part of the fixed charges (insurance, etc.) for that building, a fraction of the building administrator's salary and that of his staff, plus other items. The total cost of particular programs would then be known. A third classification is school programs with detailed cost figures, by program and grade, available on a school-by-school basis. The fourth classification is one presently being used, budget by line-items. Once cost data on goal-oriented programs are avilable, it is then possible to measure the relative costs of alternatives, each of which may be designed to achieve the same goal. Evaluations should utilize quantitative measures of the extent to which the particular goals have been met in specific programs. With quantitative measures of "achievement" coupled with cost data, a reasonably sophisticated cost-effectiveness analysis can be used as a regular feature of Board decision-making.

CURRICULAR DESIGNING, PLANNING, AND INNOVATION. Curricular designing is generally viewed in the District as course-of-study development. Responsibility for the educational program is badly diffused, with many individuals claiming authority. At the secondary level, there is little overall coordination of planning; at the elementary level, what coordination existed is now fast disappearing. Articulation between the elementary and secondary levels is limited. The Department of Curriculum, Audio-Visual and Library Services organizationally relates these three areas, but each operates independently. The Curriculum Department is badly understaffed and functions primarily as a production center for bulletins and courses-of-study.

The course-of-study development processes reveal that the focus is primarily on

subject content and time allocations; that there are no real linkages to resources outside the system (e.g., new knowledge in various disciplines, learning theory, human growth and development, and educational technology); systematic review and evaluation of the curricular designing process and of the courses of study are absent; the publications are technically good, but their content and scope are very uneven; the publications are related only casually to other activities, such as in-service education and supervision; procedures for modifying courses of study at the building level are minimal; provisions are not made to secure expert knowledge and skill for curricular designing; and, there are inconsistencies between educational means and ends.

As with curricular designing, in-service responsibilities are claimed and performed by a variety of assistant superintendents, directors, supervising directors and principals although Board rules technically place responsibility with the Dean of the D. C. Teachers College. The new Office of Staff Development and the Educational Resources Center are undertaking in-service training. Various programs such as the Language Arts Project, the School Desegregation Program and the Model School Division, conduct in-service activities.

The major problems with in-service education can be summarized as follows: there is no overall, coordinated program dealing with all aspects of continuing education; a climate for professional development is not present in many schools and teachers seem to lack confidence in their ability to cope with instructional problems; many persons who seem to profit from in-service training are quickly moved to leadership positions out of the classroom; funds for the program are minimal; in-service education for leadership personnel (i.e., principals, supervisors, directors, and others) is almost absent.

Theoretically, supervision is aimed at helping individual teachers do a better job in the classroom and controlling quality of teaching. Most teachers regard supervision as synonymous with teacher rating. Supervisors see themselves involved in curricular designing, in-service education and innovation. The growing number of specialists on the staffs of the supervising directors has stirred confusion over relations with the elementary supervisors. (The distinction between one group being concerned with <u>what</u> to teach and the other with <u>how</u> to teach it, is hardly clear either to teacher or principal.) As supervisory personnel have been added, their roles have varied, causing considerable uncertainty among classroom teachers.

Curriculum innovation has received considerable attention in Washington, but it is an elusive and difficult area to assess. The term is used to include any deliberate change directly related to the educational program. Innovations originate from many sources. Some are simply reactions to pressures of one kind or another from within and outside the school system. New federal programs (e.g., EASEA, OEO, Civil Rights, and NDEA, each with its various titles) influenced introduction of new programs. A 1965 bulletin, <u>Innovation in Instruction</u>, listed approximately 100 projects. By 1967, a sizeable number of these had either disappeared, had been greatly watered down or were simply difficult to locate. The Model School Division represents the closest thing in the District to a system for initiating and testing ideas new to the system, but it has had its problems since its inception. Basically, the question is whether the MSD is to be autonomous, solvent, and free.

Because of the diversity of the innovations and their various origins, it is difficult to generalize about them. Yet, certain observations seem valid: some innovations have been thoroughly planned and established but never evaluated; most innovations appear to have failed to alter the basic program, lacking the necessary staffing, materials or in-service education; many innovations are of a fringe nature or are de-

voted to special problems and remain obscure; some new programs are more-of-the-same and involve no real change or improvement; communication is so poor that both teachers and buildings appear isolated from the mainstream of program development; the dissemination process has not been considered; research and evaluation are rare; even where evaluation has been done (e.g., EASEA or some Model School projects), dissemination and use of the findings are restricted.

The analyses of curricular designing, in-service education, supervision and innovation indicate serious problems in staffing, financial support, and organizational and managerial effectiveness.

It is recommended that a massive effort be undertaken to personalize, humanize and upgrade the program in each building. The focal point must be the classroom teacher, principal and the building ancillary staff. Proposals have already been made for continuing in-service education of the entire staff to be built into the daily schedule. Helping the individual teacher does not mean overpowering him with specialists. The teacher needs ready access to a variety of supportive services. Only as teachers come to believe in themselves and in the children they teach, and are provided with the assistance in diagnosing and planning required for individualizing instruction, can the educational program advance.

It is recommended that a Division of Planning, Research, and Innovation be organized, responsible for continuously searching for new developments within and without the system; plan trials and evaluations of promising programs and monitor and evaluate practices being tested. The Division should be designed to tackle the problems of diffusion and institutionalization of change, to review the overall programs of existing units and to devise and maintain programs of continuing education for all professionals. At present, the District has no machinery for long-term program planning, for designing major innovations or for assessing experiments. The Division might pattern its operations on one of several models of state and regional research and development centers which are geared for large-scale design and development in selected areas of curriculum and for demonstration and evaluation of local, national, and international curriculum.

It is recommended that the District's Division of Planning, Research, and Innovation establish a major center for program development in urban education. The past decade has witnessed the mushrooming of national curriculum committees in various subject disciplines, mergers of industries with publishers of instructional materials, new relationships between universities and school systems, increased support from private foundations and greatly expanded federal involvement in instructional development. The District cannot continue a parochial approach and expect to build quality education. The proposed department could provide the stimulation, leadership, and coordination of resources -- local, regional, and national -- required to develop curricula and materials, train teachers and other staff members, and build models for urban education.

The crisis in urban education is related to the organizational structure which hampers adaptation and innovation; this Division should experiment with structural changes. The Division should spearhead locating, assessing, and proposing a variety of procedures that would forward the development of individualized instruction in those areas where such instruction is necessary and appropriate. There are areas in which social learnings call for group procedures and considerable interaction among individuals; other areas are best mastered through completely individual efforts. The Division would seek techniques, materials, and technological aids to help with individualization and differentiation of instruction.

It is recommended that the continuing in-service education be related directly to program development in the District. Highest priority must go to correcting deficiencies in teachers' and administrators' competencies and in developing leadership personnel skills. A variety of in-service procedures should be used, some dealing with general academic and professional growth and others with specific skills. Subject-matter specialists and social and behavioral scientists within and without the District should be involved in such programs. The District should encourage and aggressively seek relationships with a variety of colleges and universities to share responsibility for developing the curriculum, training the staff and studying the needs of the urban schools. The Division should coordinate area demonstrations, serving as the operational nerve center.

It is recommended that the Research Section develop strategies and techniques for evaluative studies and experimentation directly aimed at improving programs. The Division will have to plan joint programs with institutions of higher education for training research personnel and for designing techniques and procedures appropriate to the study and testing of programs. The purpose of this activity is to provide the kinds of data which will enable the Board of Education and the professional staff to make better decisions for future planning.

No substantive improvements are likely to emerge in the District from publication of another curriculum guide or adoption of a new textbook. A comprehensive schema for professional growth requires staff, time, and funding of an unprecedented order. The proposal is that continuing education be integrated into the total professional armament of all District personnel. When combined with research, development, and long-range planning, the District schools could realize considerable upgrading.

PUPIL PERSONNEL AND WELFARE SERVICES. A variety of services are provided by the Department of Pupil Personnel Services which consists of seven divisions and special programs: Child Youth and Study; Guidance and Counseling Service; School Attendance and Work Permit; Group Measurement; Special Education Placement; Parents' Consultation Service; and Identification and Prevention of Potential Dropout. An urban disadvantaged population poses particular challenges to the school system with regard to pupil personnel and welfare needs. The personnel services must range far beyond the guidance counselor assisting the student in planning for an appropriate college preparatory program. The District's pupil population brings into the school setting psychological, social, welfare, health and related needs which are intense and critical. They directly affect the school's potential for attaining its educational goals.

It is recommended that traditional guidance procedures be replaced by pupil personnel services especially tailored to fit the District's population. As a unit, the Department of Pupil Personnel Services has not been charged with designing an overall plan for services to handle the special guidance problems and counseling needs of the District's pupils. The present central office staff is too small, too burdened with day-by-day problems of management to engage in program design. If the department as a whole cannot be said to have a blueprint of action, the older divisions do have plans, each following its own model. For instance, the scheme for guidance services is an all-purpose, universal standard; the model for Child and Youth Study is a clinical pattern. Neither of these models has been custom tailored to the needs of youngsters growing up in impoverished urban ghettos. Counseling for disadvantaged pupils calls for new kinds of relationships and services. Washington school leaders, aware of family and community disorganization, should examine the possibility of developing a new breed of school social worker as an integral part of the departmental team.

It is recommended that the department be restaffed to provide the leadership coordination and supportive services needed by decentralized, community-based pupil personnel units. The central office staff should take responsibility and leadership for developing a clear-cut overall design for guidance and set guidelines within which the counselors can develop functional programs in the schools, appropriate to the populations served. Each of the community areas might develop somewhat different programs, but all should fit into a general pattern.

It is recommended that a careful review be undertaken of existing relationships between pupil personnel services and community social, psychological, and health services. At present, referrals and some exchange of information represent the extent of joint planning. Far more could be done for optimum development of program resources in school and non-school agencies. Ideas may be stimulated through collaboration with local colleges, universities, and professional organizations covering such aspects of program development as comprehensive plans for pupil personnel services, pre- and in-service education of staff, experimental multi-disciplinary programs, research and evaluation.

It is recommended that the District develop a new model for psychological services which would stress educational rather than clinical diagnoses. To the extent that psychological services have defined their goal, it appears to be a clinical model found commonly among the suburban middle-class schools in the 1950's. This model sees as its primary functions: the early detection of emotional behavioral difficulties; their diagnosis, primarily in psychological terms; the location and supply of appropriate restorative services, primarily psychotherapeutic in nature; and the promotion of mental health among pupils, parents, and school staff. These goals tend to stamp psychological services with certain characteristics in the District as elsewhere: heavy orientation toward the individual pupil and his family; a predispositon toward psychological explanations and solutions as opposed to cultural, sociological, and educational ones; an emphasis on case study and report; and an emphasis on the team approach and team conferences, dedicated to the study of the individual child.

Over the past ten years or so, the District's pupil population has changed as drastically as the nature of the problems. Psychological services have been swamped with referrals for diagnosis and remedial action which only an immense staff, highly skilled and backed by an enormous range of restorative services of all kinds, could hope to meet. The clinical model, if it is to work on a large scale of this kind, requires resources far beyond those which the Washington school system can command today. The problems facing the current school population may be perceived as educational rather than psychological. The pressing problem is how to improve the educational attainments of this pupil population. An educational model for psychological services would accept as its primary function: the early detection of learning difficulties; their diagnosis; the application of educational remedial methods; and the promotion of effective learning throughout the school system, with concern for teaching, curriculum, and school organization as they bear upon learning. It would stress: an orientation toward classroom learning and teaching, with retained emphasis on the individual child; a predisposition toward multiple explanations for learning difficulties, including educational, sociological, psychological, organic, curricular; a predisposition to remedial or preventive approaches which are as versatile as the possible causes; an emphasis on educational experimentation and evaluation; and an emphasis on collaboration with the classroom teacher and the school staff.

It is recommended that the Group Measurement Division be made part of a new Research and Evaluation Division with a mandate for diagnosis and assessment primarily for instructional and counseling purposes. At present, the Group Measurement Division

is responsible for administering and scoring the tests of readiness, intelligence and achievement which constitute the District's mandatory test program. Well over 300,000 tests are administered each year and while they are mainly machine-scored, considerable time goes into hand-scoring, checking, and corrections. This division supplies schools and central office with results of tests, primarily in terms of school-by-school and system-wide medians. It carries on some special studies of the test results, minimal because of personnel shortages. At the request of building counselors and principals, the division conducts some in-service training in test interpretation.

Reports of interpretation are delayed, despite machine scoring. Thus, small benefit accrues to diagnosis and counseling. The test results are not well used. There is no extensive use to diagnose individual strengths and weaknesses, to counsel pupils, to improve curriculum or to plan instruction. Rather, testing serves administrative and placement purposes.

The proper use of tests for counseling, diagnosis and planning, depends, of course, on the staffs and administration of the buildings. What is needed are the kinds of analyses of data and in-service education that would emphasize correct use and interpretation of scores from appropriate tests. Unless assistance is given the classroom teacher and the building principal in appropriate use of test data, they lose any real value and purpose. Although the division's paper responsibilities do include selecting appropriate tests, feeding back results in meaningful form quickly to help teachers plan and work with individuals -- in reality the Division appears stymied in all of these functions.

It is recommended that the Group Measurement Division, in cooperation with specialists from universities and test publishing agencies, develop new and more appropriate instruments and techniques for assessing individual growth and development. The reliance on paper and pencil measures, especially with a disadvantaged population, is questionable. Teachers and other program planners need procedures for judging progress which are valid, reliable and easily interpreted. Learners need to watch their own progress through self-testing materials offering immediate feedback and directions for next steps. The District should move toward the development of diagnostic procedures for instructional purposes, including a ready system which provides the individual student with relatively immediate feedback on his progress. Any serious attempt to build individualized instruction rests squarely on the availability of short-term diagnostic assessment procedures.

It is recommended that the present arrangement for staffing school nurse positions be continued but that coordination and supervision be increased. Washington is a multi-problem city and its health problems are gross and grave. A single agency, going it alone, is not likely to have much impact on the situation. The focus will have to be the community welfare rather than resolution of jurisdictional disputes. There are sufficient indications that a tug of war is underway with respect to placing nursing services under the Board of Education or the Department of Health. This argument started nationally more than 50 years ago and, to date, no satisfactory answers have been found. The absence of valid criteria on which to arrive at an objective decision probably accounts for the continuing debate. Empirical evidence indicates that the quality of school nursing services echoes the quality of nursing in the total system in which it is placed -- health department or school system.

Each agency should employ a School Nurse Supervisor with identical qualifications, salary and responsibilities for the school nurses with whom they work. They should receive the same orientation program, divided between the health department and the school system. Their chief assignment would be to improve the quality of service within the

agency with which they work and to coordinate the services between the department and the school. They should conduct joint studies to identify work essential to good nursing services for children (emphasizing relationships with family teachers, specialized school personnel and community health and welfare agencies). The supervisors should also identify the non-nursing tasks which can be delegated to paraprofessional personnel.

It is recommended that area speech and hearing centers be set up in different schools, each to contain adequate therapy, reception and administrative space. Additional, regular after-school and summer facilities should be provided where children and their parents could meet for testing, therapy and conferencing. Limiting the work of the centers to school hours causes hardships, especially when conferences with parents are required. The summer program should be expanded to include second and fifth grades.

The most pressing problems faced by the Speech and Hearing Center include personnel recruitment, speech evaluation and therapy services, speech improvement, facilities and equipment. With four professional training programs in colleges and universities in the District, it is ironic that vacancies exist in the department. Joint programs should be established for the training of student clinicians in the District schools and for planning in-service training for Speech and Hearing Center personnel.

VOCATIONAL-TECHNICAL, ADULT AND CONTINUING EDUCATION. The facilities for vocational-technical education in the District are insufficient and the services are severely hampered. Almost twice as many students now apply for admittance to vocational programs than can be accepted, even when the facilities are overused. The major decisions facing the schools have to do with the availability of vocational and technical programs, the nature of these programs and the relationship to the Washington Technical Institute. A projected Vocational-Technical-Occupational (VTO) Center would have provided for more than 5,000 students at the secondary level and beyond. Instead, the Washington Technical Institute was created to provide two-year post-secondary programs. Every indication points to the need for more scientific and technical instruction, and present programs are particularly weak in these fields.

The District must provide vocational-technical training to far more youth. It could expand and develop present vocational schools and/or build new ones. It could develop the Vocational-Technical-Occupational Center as proposed in the educational specifications available, modified to take into account the development of the Technical Institute. Or, it could develop new relationships between the senior and vocational high schools with the latter becoming Skills Development Centers.

It is recommended that the vocational high schools be reconceived as Skills Development Centers, completely articulated with the present academic high schools. Thus, the latter would become comprehensive secondary schools, with satellite vocational-technical skills and supplementary learning centers. Many students in senior high schools need a sound general education. A comprehensive, integrated program holds promise for both. It is in the "general" curriculum portion of the program that the secondary schools have been weakest. The general education program so essential for today's challenge would be provided in the school best equipped to provide it. Vocational-technical portions of the program would be provided at centers especially equipped for such programs. A student would spend variable times at the skills center, as determined by his individual needs. There would be short-term training for those whose interests lie in that direction; fuller and longer-term provisions for training in more

demanding areas; and technical training for those with greatest capabilities and interests.

The basis for the proposal is the belief that vocational preparation is a must for all students: it may be deferred to junior college for some, to graduate school for a minority or it may reach down in the junior high school for others. Vocational education for the future has to react positively to swift changes and to expect larger intellectual components in most people's work. Preparation must be provided not only in traditional areas of distributive, business and office occupations, trade and industrial programs, but also in the development of technicians in fields such as computers, engineering, medicine and social work. By developing stronger general education and vocational programs for all students, the District schools will be tackling the perennial problem of curricula for youngsters who are presently neither college-bound nor vocationally-trained but in limbo in a "general" program.

It is recommended that the District explore alternative approaches to vocational-technical education specifically designed for potential dropouts and out-of-school youth. Experience with large numbers of disadvantaged youth in various OEO programs has begun to accumulate and to provide leads to alternatives to the standard secondary program of full-time classes in regular sequence. The distributive education and work-study programs should be expanded. The general education program might take the form of tutoring-on-the-job for some students. The whole gamut of new and promising arrangements should be tested -- none restricted to the existing physical facilities.

It is recommended that the adult education program be reconceived on the basis of analyses of clientele, of community needs and of existing programs in related agencies. The division has few procedures for assessing program needs presently. There is no research regarding non-participants, except for data on illiteracy and adult basic education. There is no attempt to interpret community needs through census data, staff contacts with community groups or broad-based advisory committees.

Pilot neighborhood programs should be aimed at adults and young adults with low levels of literacy and vocational competence. Working with and through opinion leaders and developing "vestibule" programs as a way of reaching adults who would not otherwise participate, the programs could facilitate entry and transfer into general education and vocational courses. The division should recruit adults for specially designed programs and should widen and extend its constituency. Special programs are needed for parent education and involvement in the educational process. Program development has skimmed over the educationally unready and the self-directed learner. Little or no counseling is provided the adult who is unsure of what is available that might be helpful to him. Adult educators should develop a strong, visible counseling program in various neighborhoods -- a single door-to-door data on registration for all programs, including those sponsored by other agencies.

The division should coordinate its activities with the vocational education program, Federal City College, the Washington Technical Institute and other agencies which serve adults. Creation of an adult education liaison committee should assemble planners from all relevant segments of the school system to facilitate interrelationships among various units.

With approximately 40 percent of the secondary school youth not completing high school, with a large gap between employer needs and marketable skills, with a large section of the adult population under-educated and impoverished, the District schools must be as concerned with educational provisions for adults and out-of-school youth as it is with early childhood, elementary and secondary education. Adult educators now

face the challenge of programming for a population which has rejected or been rejected by schools in the past. These groups are not likely to make their needs known to school people nor request that programs be provided. It is the school system which must go out to the neighborhoods to determine what kinds of programs -- basic literacy, consumer education, manpower development, skills upgrading or others -- will reach the various adult publics. The events of the past half-dozen years have delineated a new role for adult education, one that now includes all persons aged 16 and over. Continuing education -- life-long education -- may be a more appropriate designation in this framework.

HIGHER EDUCATION. The District of Columbia has an impressive array of post-high school educational institutions. However, until November 1966, when Congress created a system of public higher education in the District, there were no general public institutions of higher education in Washington. If Congress authorizes the annual funding, if the new Boards establish creative policies and if the newly appointed presidents of the Federal City College and the Washington Technical Institute exercise leadership and vision, the District will have public higher education opportunities with ramifications at all levels for the District.

Federal City College will provide a four-year program in the liberal arts, sciences, and teacher education, leading toward a baccalaureate degree. When it becomes operational, it will absorb D. C. Teachers College. It will also offer two-year programs which will be acceptable for full credit toward a bachelor's degree or for a degree of associate in arts. These programs may include courses in business education, secretarial training, and business administration. The two-year program may also include courses in engineering, mathematics, and the physical and biological sciences designed to prepare a student for work as a technician or as a semiprofessional in engineering, sciences and other technical fields. The college is also chartered to offer educational programs leading either to a master's degree or to no degree at all, for those desiring only to further their education.

Washington Technical Institute will provide two-year programs of "vocational and technical education designed to fit individuals for useful employment in recognized occupations; and vocational and technical courses on an individual, non-credit basis."

It is recommended that Federal City College become an "open door" college for a large number of able youth who might be barred elsewhere. The College should aim at attracting high school graduates of competence, promise, and seriousness of purpose; yet it must not limit its admissions only to a select few. Its admissions staff should be sensitive to two factors: current inadequacies in many secondary schools; and the persisting potential within graduates of such high schools, who deserve one more academic chance. In certain cases it should admit others whose special abilities, strong motivation, records and recommendations indicate that -- with inspiring teaching -- they may achieve satisfactory or even distinguished records.

The College should be at the cutting edge in channeling disadvantaged youth into the mainstream of higher education. If the "open door" admission standards are applied, there will need to be compensatory programs at the college level -- individual and small group tutoring, self-instructional programmed materials, remedial assistance and even counseling and therapy. Underachieving gifted students seem to have profited from experimental programs in a residential setting: counseling, instruction, recreation and tutoring. There may be leads here for reaching low-income youth with latent talent.

It is recommended that serious efforts be made to remove the two-year program

from the Federal City College and combine it with the Washington Technical Institute to form a separate Washington Community College, as proposed by the Chase Committee. Two- and four-year colleges differ in many ways: purposes, admissions, faculty, instructional needs, and institutional personalities. Sharper objectives, stronger programs and a minimizing of admission problems will result from separating the two programs. The task force sees considerable merit in a single community college uniting the functions now assigned to the Technical Institute and the two-year programs of the Federal City College. If this is not possible, the Board of Higher Education should direct its administrators and faculty to build an institution which avoids the usual schisms of two-and four-year programs. Federal City College could then set the pattern for city-based institutions, serving a population which is largely low-income and academically marginal. The District now has an opportunity to engineer a new type of college for a student body which has been absent from the higher education campus.

It is recommended that the D. C. Teachers College be absorbed by the Federal City College as soon as practical. The integration of the College into the Federal City College can revitalize the teacher education program. It can stimulate new ways of recruiting and training teachers. As the College pioneers in educational programs for the urban student, it should plan and test ways of improving preparation of teachers, of para-professionals and other educational personnel. The present administration and staff of D. C. Teachers College have already made starts in this direction and further planning should benefit from the more comprehensive resources of the Federal City College.

It is recommended that the Washington Technical Institute develop its program as a comprehensive community college rather than as a more narrow, specialized institution. There is a great need for technical and semi-professional education but these might better be housed in a two-year community college. Regardless of name, what is needed is an institution which is accessible, comprehensive, dedicated to lifelong education and adaptable to the change, needs and interests of its community.

It is recommended that the three boards establish formal means of coordinating their program planning and development. As they become operative, the two groups concerned with post-secondary education, together with the Board of Education, should establish machinery for coordinating educational planning efforts for the District as a whole -- children, youth, young adults and adults. Joint programs, use of resources and facilities, shared personnel are all essential if an integrated educational scheme is to emerge. Unless coordination takes place, programs will be fragmented. The three boards should establish and appoint subcommittees involving lay and professional personnel to coordinate policies, programs and budgets. Coordination could more easily be achieved on the program and planning level than at the political level.

SPECIAL EDUCATION. This area is concerned with providing adequate programs for children with mental and physical disabilities: Educable and Trainable Mentally Retarded, Blind and Partially Sighted, Hard of Hearing, Homebound and Hospitalized, Crippled, Health problems, Social-Emotionally Maladjusted, and Neurologically Impaired.

Weakness in placement and evaluation has deterred effective program development and implementation. Although the disabilities of children and youth are important to an educational system only to the extent that they constitute educational handicaps, educational diagnosis and the translation of diagnostic data into curriculum plans have not been adequately utilized. The office of the Director of Special Education has been reduced to an assignment station after either the pupil personnel services or the health department has made a referral. Educational decisions for emotionally and physically handicapped pupils are made by medical staff, psychologists,

social workers, guidance counselors and attendance officers, even though this is an aspect of education which requires special preparation. At the present time, special education seems to be everyone's prerogative and nobody's responsibility. The administration of the program is fragmented, with a variety of departments and agencies playing dominant roles, some of which appear to be without clearly evident qualifications for the controls exercised. Without a unified and highly competent staff to develop and implement a program, the Director cannot exercise the creative leadership that such a program demands if it is to be effective.

A strong special education program is a necessity for a sizable portion of the pupil population across the nation -- estimated to be as high as 10 percent. In large city depressed areas, the number of children with handicapping disabilities may be even higher as a result of inadequate prenatal care, nutrition and general health deficiencies. What the exact situation is in the District with respect to disabling handicaps is not clear because of the unevenness in special education programs. Based on studies in other large cities, it would be expected that impairments requiring education provisions and related services would be high. In fact, in most areas they are far below national expectations.

It is recommended that a Department of Special Education be organized, responsible for all aspects of the program and services for children with disabilities -- diagnoses, placement, instruction, personnel, supervision and research. The department should develop relationships with ancillary services and agencies -- health, welfare, psychological and guidance -- to enhance a team approach to diagnoses and planning and to minimize the long delays. A simplified and consolidated record system should be developed which provides ready access on all pertinent information about a pupil in reasonable proximity to him so that it can be used in program planning and evaluation.

The department would take charge, not only of intake and placement, but also of organizing educational services, teacher recruitment, in-service training, curriculum design and cooperative programs with community agencies and institutions. Once the department established its identity, two major projects should be embarked upon as soon as possible: (1) A Diagnostic Center for Special Education should be developed where a team could plan and provide in-school screening programs and in-department supportive services where needed. The Diagnostic Center could provide a laboratory for training special educators from colleges and universities. (2) A Washington Metropolitan Area Special Education Program should be developed in cooperation with neighboring school systems and institutions of higher education. This regionalization could be of considerable benefit in meeting the special education needs for the entire area. Where participating districts might not have sufficient numbers of children with certain areas of disability to warrant a first-class program, the region could support an optimum program.

It is recommended that a comprehensive "crash" survey be made throughout the school system to identify children who are now experiencing problems and suspected of having disabilities. Beginning with teacher-presumptive diagnoses and moving to in-depth assessment by trained diagnosticians, a system-wide study would benefit the children concerned and provide data needed for planning programs and services which must be provided. Systematic provisions should be made for obtaining early diagnoses of childhood problems so that educational and related provisions can be made before the disabilities seriously block learning and development. Teacher skills should be developed in observing children's behavior so that they will recognize the need for referral for better diagnosis and planning.

It is recommended that the Department of Special Education undertake a complete

review of the special education personnel to determine the qualifications and training needs of those presently in the area. On the basis of such an assessment, a cadre of qualified personnel could be identified as the core for program development, an in-service program could be inaugurated for upgrading teacher competencies and an intensive search could be initiated for new recruits.

It is recommended that the Department of Special Education take the lead in viewing the city child and particularly the inner-city child positively, realistically assessing his strengths and weaknesses -- mental, physical, social and emotional -- and then building a solid, sequential, individualized educational program. The special education area has dealt with children on an individualized basis, capitalizing on their strengths to compensate for handicaps. It has developed techniques, materials and insights which should now be used more widely.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND RESOURCES. Like most school systems, the District has failed to exploit fully new communication media, instructional materials and educational technologies. Even in the use of more conventional resources, the District is vulnerable to charges of inappropriate textbooks, meager elementary libraries, deficiencies in non-print materials and equipment, inefficient use of supplementary materials and over-caution in exploring emerging technologies. Some of these failings are the result of grossly inadequate budgets of the past. And, in some areas, the materials and equipment that should be available in the classroom -- self instructional items, materials designed for urban settings and multi-sensory kits -- are just being marketed. The District's materials and resources problem is both short- and long-range. The immediate need is to use what is available now more effectively while, at the same time, to organize and plan for the production of the "software" (the content and substance) needed for the instructional technology and new media available and still being developed.

No elementary school meets the American Library Association's 1960 Standards for School Library Programs and none is likely to meet the new 1967 ALA Standards for Media Centers. The organizational pattern not only separated the facilities, functions, services and staffs of the Department of Library Services from the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, but it will interfere with any attempt to promote the concepts, materials and the services for the needed unified programs.

It is recommended that the District revise its procedures for preparing the approved textbooks lists and requisitions. The entire procedure inevitably hamstrings efforts to secure appropriate resources as needed. The District should encourage the purchase and testing of multi-level, multi-sensory materials with various populations. It should provide funds for non-text, non-print instructional materials. It should encourage teachers to individualize instruction by making readily available to the pupils materials which are appropriate and self-instructional. The rich resource of less permanent but educationally valuable paperback materials has not been widely used by the District.

Dominated by textbooks and other printed materials, by libraries which are simply shelves of books, the programs rarely employ non-print resources even for group instruction. Multi-sensory materials -- visual, auditory and manipulative -- are seldom available in the schools. Some publishers are now producing instructional units which come complete with text, laboratory equipment, supplementary materials, charts, audio-visual aids and even tests. They seem not to have found their way to the approved lists as yet. The District should prepare criteria to be applied to selection of materials which are "urban-appropriate." Alone or with other large cities, the District could move publishers to produce a variety of curriculum resources for the urban population.

It is recommended that the District set a goal of a Multi-Media Learning Center in every school, coupled with Area Media Centers for resources which are more effectively handled from a central location. These centers should include what is now found in the library, but much more. The Multi-Media Center should include storage and ready retrieval of a variety of print and non-print materials which the learner can use by himself. In addition to available resources of all kinds (including cartridged films and tapes, programmed materials, books, etc.) there should be production facilities for teachers and pupils to prepare their own materials. The spectrum of educational media and tools for learning range from television to computer systems to "dial access" devices to telelecture and telelearning devices, to cite a few. To move in the direction of such centers will require major policy changes in construction (some already are contemplated for the 1969-74 program) and what can be purchased, how, and at what level of funding. Beyond the policy changes, however, considerable reeducation will be necessary for principals and teachers to develop new approaches to planning and using the range of instructional resources.

It is recommended that the District undertake cooperative projects with agencies and institutions in the area to extend the use of community resources for effective learning opportunities. The Smithsonian Institute storefront "drop-in museum" and the Laundry Community Center are two illustrations of relationships between schools and communities, formal and informal, institutional and non-institutional, in the war against educational, cultural and economic poverty. New combines of schools, institutions of higher education, community leaders and representatives from the performing arts and cultural institutions, social and welfare workers -- all should explore the possibilities of using the real world as the classroom. The city itself provides a learning laboratory for the social sciences and the humanities. Conceived in this manner, the school and its classrooms no longer contain all instructional resources -- the community and its life provide rich learning opportunities.

SCHOOL PLANTS, FACILITIES AND MAINTENANCE. More than a third of the District's school buildings are 50 years old or older. Despite the fact that the greatest costs in Congressional appropriations have been made in capital outlay requests, some progress has been made. In the last dozen years, the District has built 21 elementary, 10 junior high and 2 senior high schools, replaced one elementary and one junior high school, and added to 36 elementary, 8 junior high and 2 senior high schools. The bulk of this construction has gone into the inner-city areas where the oldest and most dilapidated buildings were found. A six-year public works program approved by the District Commissioners in August 1966 calls for new construction and additions to 71 schools and modernizing of an additional 32.

The District school system is just now beginning to undertake the replacement and modernization badly needed. It has a tremendous backlog of obsolete and substandard facilities. The District must now use its capital outlay money to plan and build facilities whose design is in the forefront for urban needs.

It is recommended that an Innovation and Research Section be designated, staffed and charged with the task of generating interest and attention to a more productive dialogue between user and designer of educational facilities. With few exceptions, the District's new buildings could be transplanted to the suburbs or elsewhere and, except for greater green acreage, look the same. If the school plants are to serve the community in other ways than classes from 9 a.m. to 3 p.m., then their design, location, flexibility must differ from today's universal sameness. If a building is to provide supplementary learning centers to be used for irregular periods of time to furnish specialized resources from the entire District, egg-crate construction will not suffice. New tech-

nology will not be used effectively in classrooms which have only the tablet armchairs of yesteryear; different kinds of space utilization and technical planning is needed. It has been advocated that the school can be the hub of community neighborhood renewal, but little planning has been done to test this idea. Two new institutions of higher education are to be built in the District in the immediate future; these could be self-contained and isolated or they could be part of an integrated educational complex. Year-round use of facilities requires designs different from present standards. Modernization and rehabilitation of some facilities are feasible and desirable, given creative imagination and planning.

It is recommended that maintenance and upkeep of buildings be improved by instituting procedures for reducing the lag in repairs and by upgrading custodial and operational personnel skills in undertaking work locally. Existing buildings will be with the District for a good many years to come. There is no reason why they cannot be kept in good repair and maintained so they are reasonably livable and functional as places for learning. Basic custodial care, which will keep the building free of institutional odor, accumulated dirt and minor breakdowns, must be the goal of upgrading the present personnel and procedures; "flying squads" of maintenance specialists should be organized to dispatch quickly for small jobs. Preventive maintenance must be built into the training programs.

EXTRACURRICULAR AND OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES. No matter how valid the traditional objectives for extracurricular activities were, they no longer provide a sufficient guide for program planning. Relationships between age groups are too seriously disrupted for traditional objectives and emphases to be adequate. Well planned and implemented activity programs can become threat-free meeting grounds, providing learning opportunities that go far beyond the basic academic program. Extra-curricular activities can contribute to the development of youth in ways which seem to be stymied by more formal academic programs. However, as long as such programs are viewed as peripheral or "frosting," full advantage will not be taken of the potential contribution to the total educational program. It is in the areas of attitudes, interpersonal relationships, self-concepts and other non-intellectual factors that extracurricular activities can make their greatest contribution. As programs are better developed and more relevant, the supportive nature of the extracurricular activities for both intellectual and non-intellectual goals becomes more apparent.

It is recommended that the Board of Education develop a strong policy for extracurricular activities which would make them an integral part of the District's total educational program. Such programs should not be locked into the formality of the academic program but should be viewed as part of the overall learning opportunities provided in and out of school. A thorough study of the potential of this aspect of the educational enterprise as it relates to today's urban youth is warranted. At each junior and senior high school, a staff member should be designated for the development, coordination and facilitation of student activities within the school and for identifying and maintaining relationships with other youth-serving agencies.

It is recommended that students be given a more central role in planning cocurricular activities. To enlarge opportunities for students to develop their leadership potential while designing programs which will be perceived by them as relevant and important, mechanisms must be provided for student participation in all aspects of program planning. Out-of-school programs have demonstrated that youths, even those who have dropped out of and are alienated from school, are quite capable of making valuable planning contributions to programs with which they are concerned. There is a need for young people to develop new and more satisfying relationships with members of the adult community and to achieve a sense of belonging. The conception of extracurricular

programs should be altered to include a variety of programs in which youths and young adults can take leadership, provide necessary and valuable services. From participation in such programs, youths can realize a considerable sense of personal achievement and derive significant learnings. Youths need opportunities to contribute to society and to their own dignity and self-esteem. The informality, the interpersonal relationships, the climate found in many extracurricular programs hold considerable promise for the total educational enterprise.

TOWARD IMPLEMENTATION OF THE RECOMMENDATIONS. As suggested earlier, the task of implementing the many recommendations contained in this report must begin with serious study of each of the areas and the recommendations contained therein. Such study should be conducted at many different levels, involving many persons, both lay and professional. Steps should be taken to provide the widest possible dissemination of the report and its recommendations. Various kinds of study groups involving parents and other community citizens, teachers, administrators, ancillary personnel and others should be formed to study the findings and the proposals.

For professionals on the job who are responsible for day-by-day operations of the schools, it is difficult to undertake systematic planning simultaneously. This has been demonstrated in other instances where no provisions were made to free persons for the detailed planning required for implementation of a study report of this kind. The results have been that even with the best of intentions on the part of the Board of Education, professionals and parents, implementation has lagged. Without an implementation unit or a research and development office, planning is extremely difficult. This report recommends an office that would have major responsibility for such planning. However, until such time as the central office is organized to provide for both short- and long-range planning, it is recommended that a temporary unit be established whose personnel would be freed for the sole purpose of guiding the planning for implementation of the proposals contained herein. This temporary unit should draw on many resources within and outside the system which can help plan. Teachers College, Columbia University offers its assistance in planning for implementing these recommendations. The Central Atlantic Regional Educational Laboratory (CAREL), the institutions of higher education and professional associations in the area represent other sources for aid in implementing these recommendations. An office or unit whose prime responsibility is to help with arrangements for study of the report and recommendations and to provide the resource and guidance in the planning for implementation of the proposals is essential if the District is to move ahead. It should be established as soon as possible.

There is considerable momentum and readiness to accept the challenge that the report poses for the District and its schools. It would be a disservice to the children of Washington if this momentum were now lost. The District, its professionals, parents and citizens must now take the next steps -- weighing and studying the proposals and planning for implementation of those recommendations which have merit. Highest priority must obviously go to upgrading the entire professional staff and to developing adequate and appropriate educational programs -- curricula, materials, services and diagnostic and assessment procedures.

An estimate of the costs for each of the proposals will be developed by a Teachers College staff member, the Assistant Superintendent for General Research, Budget and Legislation, and the members of his staff. The Board should establish a timetable for its own study and implementation of the report which might serve as a guide for other groups.

Challenge and Opportunity for the District of Columbia Schools

Historically, city school systems have been among the most sophisticated and innovative. Only recently have they lost this leadership thrust. The District can and must take advantage of its peculiar setting in the nation's capital, of its unusual resources of personnel and places, to move up front in demonstrating quality education for a diverse population. It must provide the variety of educational programs appropriate to the wide range of differences that one finds in the city's pupil population, educational experiences that take into account the background and psycho-social factors that influence learning and that incorporate the resources of the large city as an integral part of the learning environment. The urban school system does not exist only for the disadvantaged and for those who are unable to flee to the suburbs or pay for private schooling.

The urban school must educate all pupils with their ranges of differences in ability, motivation, social status, experimental backgrounds. A school system which can meet these challenges will attract all people who want good education for their children. While such a goal may in the current context seem idealistic and unrealistic, to strive for less would be to doom the city schools to a continuing decline.

Differentiated instruction based on differentiated needs is at the heart of both equality and quality. Absolute uniformity in schools would prove a Procrustean bed for the myriad individuals whose education is a public responsibility. An urban system must respond to the broadest range of individuals -- the very able, highly motivated, self-assured child, supported in his academic pursuits by home and neighborhood; the less able, apathetic and even alienated youth who receives no such support; the child with multiple problems and multiple handicaps. The starting point for good teaching is the recognition of differences, of learning disabilities, whatever their causes or origins, of individual talents and unusual potential for learning, of hidden aspirations and commitments. The fact of individual differences is fact. It cannot be ignored without seriously damaging the quality of education.

In summary, an urban population is not an agglomeration of impoverished, ghetto youngsters but includes the total range of learning abilities, aptitudes and interests. It is precisely this diversity which presents the District schools simultaneously with tremendous difficulties and the chance for profound accomplishments.

Chapter I

Toward Creating A Model Urban School System

Even more than most large city school systems, the Public Schools of the District of Columbia are in crisis. Despite examples of good quality education, of dedicated and creative professionals at all levels, of a pattern of increasing financial support, of numerous efforts to initiate new programs, the District schools as a whole appear to be in deep, and probably worsening, trouble. Unless drastic and dramatic action is taken in the immediate future, it is highly unlikely that the present trends can be reversed.

Unlike most urban systems, which have their "slum" or "depressed area" schools surrounded by a more affluent ring, the District has a predominance of schools whose characteristics are elsewhere marks of the "inner-city." These include relatively large concentrations of disadvantaged children, a largely re-segregated pupil population, a predominantly Negro staff, a number of over-aged and inadequate school buildings, and an anachronistic fiscal dependence.

The issues around which controversy has centered recently -- the track system, de facto segregation and racial imbalance, the proportion and assignment of "temporary" teachers -- are peripheral but symptomatic of the crisis. The question of whether the District schools can emulate the suburban schools also seems to miss the point. To take as its model the "best suburban school" and pattern the District's educational programs and practices after what appears to work in suburban settings is likely to lead to the development of an educational system inappropriate to the District's population. In fact, the model the District needs is one which really does not exist as yet; it is one which Washington itself must build.

As the nation's ninth largest city, with a population which is more than 60 percent Negro, largely poor and racially encapsulated in ghetto areas, the District must work ceaselessly to develop the best possible public school system for its present population and for those likely to be entering its schools for the next decades. The District really faces a two-pronged challenge: providing massive remediation of existing learning difficulties of those now in school and the development of preparatory and compensatory programs for the young children who will be entering school. To achieve this, the District schools must become the nation's laboratory for the creation of a model for urban school systems.

Challenge and Opportunity for the Urban School

Historically, city school systems have been among the most sophisticated and innovative. Only recently have they lost this leadership thrust. The District can and must take advantage of its peculiar setting in the nation's capital, of its unusual resources of personnel and places, to move up front in demonstrating quality education for a diverse population. It must provide the variety of educational programs appropriate to the wide-range of differences that one finds in the city's pupil population, educational experiences that take into account the background and psycho-social factors that influence learning and that incorporate the resources of the large city as an integral part of the learning environment. The urban school system does not exist only for the disadvantaged and for those who are unable to flee to the suburbs or pay for private schooling.

The urban school must educate all pupils with their ranges of differences in

ability, motivation, social status, experiential backgrounds. A school system which can meet these challenges will attract all people who want good education for their children. While such a goal may in the current content seem idealistic and unrealistic, to strive for less would be to doom the city schools to a continuing decline.

The central questions before the Washington community and its schools are:

1) What are the educationally relevant differences which the District's children bring into the classroom?

2) What kinds of varied educational experiences must be provided by the schools to accommodate these differences?

These are perennial questions, of course, but they take on a special urgency in today's urban setting. Educators as well as legislators and the public recognize that large numbers of city pupils are not performing adequately, as judged by commonly accepted achievement criteria. The long-range goal is not simply one of bringing children up to grade-level in reading but, as John H. Fischer put it: "...to provide schools that will assure every child an equal chance to use his talents to live effectively and to compete on fair terms in an open society. Only a system adaptable and flexible enough to provide unequal education can meet this criterion."1/

In order to satisfy the youngster who requires compensatory education, the exceptionally talented child who needs greater challenge, the handicapped child with special needs, and the youth whose goal is immediate employment -- the schools would have to implement the long espoused American principle: <u>each child should be educated according to his individual needs</u>. What follows from this is that true equality of educational opportunity cannot result from identical educational treatment. ("The equal treatment of unequals produces neither equality nor justice."2/)

Differentiated instruction based on differentiated needs is at the heart of both equality and quality. Absolute uniformity in schools would prove a Procrustean bed for the myriad individuals whose education is a public responsibility. An urban system must respond to the broadest range of individuals -- the very able, highly motivated, self-assured child, supported in his academic pursuits by home and neighborhood; the less able, apathetic and even alienated youth who receives no such support; the child with multiple problems and multiple handicaps. The starting point for good teaching is the recognition of differences, of learning disabilities, whatever their causes or origins; of individual talents and unusual potential for learning; of hidden aspirations and commitments. The fact of individual differences is fact. It cannot be ignored without seriously damaging the quality of education.

In summary, an urban population is not an agglomeration of impoverished, ghetto youngsters but of the total range of learning abilities, aptitudes and interests. It is precisely this diversity which presents the urban school simultaneously with tremendous difficulties and the chance for profound accomplishments.

1/ John H. Fischer, "The School in the City." Paper delivered at Teachers College Convocation, June 6, 1967. p. 5.

2/ Ibid., p. 4.

Major Survey Findings

In their grossest terms, the survey findings tend to confirm the general impressions that many professionals and lay citizens have about education in the District, namely, that the schools are presently not adequate to the task of educating all the District's children. Although various positive aspects were apparent to the investigators, the emphasis will be placed on those findings which pinpoint areas where changes are needed. What follows is a list of boldly generalized findings which will be considered in detail in the later sections of the report.

In general, the District schools reveal:

-- A low level of scholastic achievement as measured by performance on standardized tests.

-- Grouping procedures which have been honored in the breach as often as observed in practice.

-- A curriculum which, with certain exceptions, has not been especially developed for or adapted to the urban population served.

-- A "holding power" or dropout rate which reflects the large numbers of youth leaving school before earning a diploma.

-- An increasing de facto residential segregation for the District as a whole, which has resulted in a largely re-segregated school system.

-- Staffing patterns which have left the schools with large numbers of "temporary" teachers and heightened the District's vulnerability at a time of national teacher shortage.

-- Guidance services which are unable to reach the heart of the personnel and welfare needs of the pupil population.

-- Inadequate evaluation and assessment procedures together with limited use of test data for diagnosis and counseling.

-- Inservice teacher education programs which fall far short of providing adequately for the continuing education essential for professional growth.

-- A promotion system which has lacked the basic ingredients of career development and training for supervisory and administrative leadership.

-- Patterns of deployment of specialists, such as supervisors and psychologists, which tend to limit their effectiveness.

-- A "reacting school system" rather than an initiating one insofar as innovation, long-range planning and program development are concerned.

-- A central administrative organization which combines overconcentration of responsibilities in some areas and proliferation and overlap in others.

-- Budgetary and business procedures which are needlessly complicated and cumbersome.

-- Substantial numbers of school buildings which are less than adequate for conducting a full educational program and in which the maintenance program lags badly.

-- Poor communication between the schools and the communities they serve.

-- A Board of Education whose operating procedures appear to be unusually cumbersome, so that an inordinate amount of time is spent on repetitive debate and on administrative detail rather than policy leadership.

-- Relationships with other youth-serving agencies which are less than optimal.

To a greater or lesser extent, these same generalizations might be applied to other large city systems. But, to do so would not mitigate their impact on Washington's pupil population. One qualification is inescapable: few large city school systems have been as financially starved as the District has been until recently, few have been as hamstrung by legal restrictions.

It has been made abundantly clear in the past few years that the quality of education in the urban school is not dependent alone on the conditions and curricula within the school building itself nor its organizational arrangements. Housing, family life, employment opportunities, community organization, mobility and many other aspects of the socio-political-economic scene directly affect the instructional functions. To say this is not to seek excuses for the school's failures but rather to underscore the point that the school must comprehend the impact of these forces on the development of the children and plan accordingly. As Robert M. MacIver observed:

> The school's function is to educate, and, where the family and the community fail to provide the social adjustment necessary to prepare the young to receive the education the school offers, it must step in to provide it within the area of its capacity. The school is in a peculiarly strategic position to perform such a preventive and rehabilitative function.1/

The findings and observations of the task forces are presented in the chapters which follow, together with some of the recommendations specific to that area of the Study. The final chapter will detail the recommendations which deal with broader aspects of the District's educational undertaking.

1/ MacIver, Robert M., Final Report: Juvenile Delinquency Evaluation Report: The City of New York, 1962.

Chapter 2

The District of Columbia

Its People and Characteristics [a/]

The District of Columbia is the nation's ninth largest city, the heart of the tenth most populous metropolitan area in the country, (nearly 2.4 million persons.) The District itself has over 813,000 inhabitants with about one fourth of its population still thinking of "somewhere else" as home. As of 1960, Washington ranked fourth in the nation in rate of growth. However, unlike most other cities, the District's growth is highly stimulated by national and international crises while suffering a relative cessation of growth during periods of tranquility and prosperity on the national and international scene.

Table 2-1

Metropolitan Washington Population, 1930-1965

	1930	1940	1950	1960	1965
Washington, D.C.	486,869	663,091	802,178	763,956	813,000
Montgomery County	49,206	83,912	164,401	340,928	----------
Prince Georges County	60,095	89,490	194,182	357,395	----------
Arlington County	26,615	57,049	135,449	163,401	----------
Fairfax County	25,264	40,929	98,557	*275,002	----------
Alexandria	24,149	33,523	61,787	*91,023	----------
Falls Church	(†)	(‡)	7,535	10,192	----------
Suburban total	185,329	304,894	661,911	1,237,941	1,578,000
Grand total	672,198	967,985	1,464,089	2,001,897	2,391,000

Source: 1965 estimates by the National Capital Regional Planning Commission. Other data from the United States census and from M. Dethrick, City Politics in Washington, D.C. (Washington Center for Metropolitan Studies, 1962). D.C. population estimates for 1950, 1960 and 1965 vary from those provided by D.C. Department of Public Health and included in Table 2.

*In 1952 the city of Alexandria annexed 7.5 square miles from Fairfax County. This area included about 3,500 persons in 1950.

†Included in Fairfax County and Arlington County totals.

‡Included in Fairfax County total.

Well over three-fifths of the population is Negro, a situation unique in American cities although it may well predict the future. Between 1930 and 1960, while the Negro population for the Washington metropolitan area as a whole decreased slightly (from 24.9 percent to 24.3 percent), the proportion of Negroes in the District of Columbia increased from 27.1 percent to 53.9 percent.

a/ Dr. George W. Carey and Dr. Nathan Hare prepared reports from which this material is drawn.

Figure II-1

Non-White Population in the District of Columbia

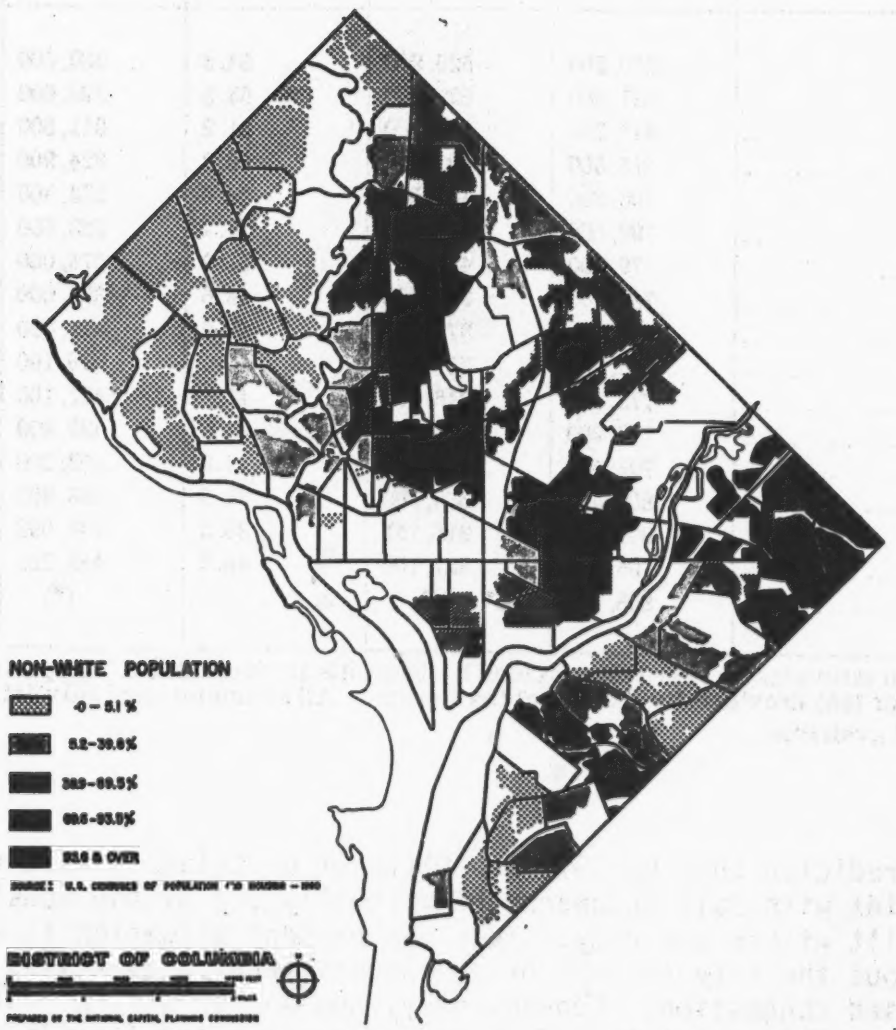


Table 2-3

District of Columbia population by race, 1950-1966

Year	District total	White	Percent White	Negro	Percent Negro
1950	810,500	520,900	64.3	289,600	35.7
1951	821,800	522,200	63.5	299,600	36.5
1952	817,700	506,200	61.9	311,500	38.1
1953	815,500	490,600	60.2	324,900	39.8
1954	798,800	465,500	58.3	333,300	41.7
1955	792,500	438,900	55.4	353,600	44.6
1956	779,200	404,200	51.9	375,000	48.1
1957	787,600	390,600	49.6	397,000	50.4
1958	788,800	377,800	47.9	411,000	52.1
1959	775,900	357,800	46.1	418,100	53.9
1960	773,400	346,300	44.8	427.100	55.2
1961	782,900	343,100	43.8	439,800	56.2
1962	791,900	339,700	42.9	452,200	57.1
1963	805,500	336,700	41.8	468,800	58.2
1964	802,749	315,751	39.3	486,998	60.7
1965	795,300	307,100	38.6	488,200	61.4
1966	808,000	(*)	----------	(*)	----------

Source: Population estimates for 1950-1965 provided by Biostatistics Section, D.C. Department of Public Health. Estimate for 1966 provided by Bureau of the Census. All estimates as of July 1st.

* Information not available.

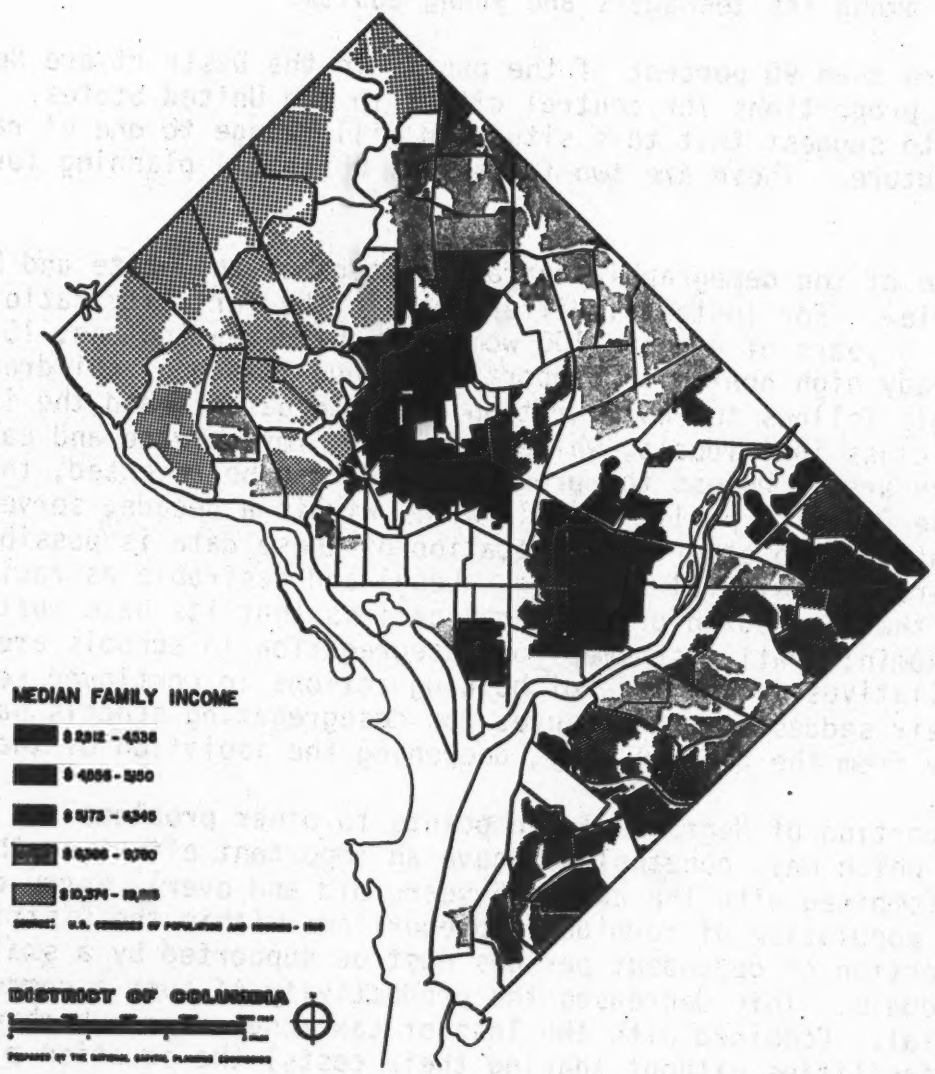
It has been predicted that by 1970 the District of Columbia will reach its population saturation point with full occupancy of virtually all of the housing units that can possibly be built within the city. Thus the present situation in which Negroes have moved throughout the city to rent or buy houses vacated by whites will probably be followed by increased congestion. Consequently, non-whites will be further impelled to move to the suburbs. This prediction is based on anticipated fertility and migration rates as effects of responses to new job opportunities, especially in the federal government.

It is a fact that the relative, though not absolute, Negro increase in the Washington Metropolitan area is slower or smaller than the growth in ten of the 15 largest metropolitan areas of the country. The rising Negro population of the District is a product of the changing absolute number of Negroes and the white shift to the suburbs. While Negroes comprise one-fourth of the population of the Washington area, 85 percent of them live within the District of Columbia. In contrast, only 23 percent of the area's whites are so confined.

Within the boundaries of the District, the "segregation index" for Negroes is 80 (total segregation would show an index of 100; total integration, an index of 0). It is also true that Negro income groups are segregated from one another to some extent; but the degree of Negro socio-economic segregation does not begin to approach that of racial segregation. This is evident from a comparison of Figure II-1 with Figure II-2.

Figure II-2

Median Family Income in the District of Columbia


MEDIAN FAMILY INCOME
$ 2,912 - 4,536
$ 4,536 - 5,150
$ 5,173 - 6,345
$ 6,346 - 9,700
$ 10,376 - 19,815
SOURCE: U.S. CENSUS OF POPULATION AND HOUSING - 1960
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA
PREPARED BY THE NATIONAL CAPITAL PLANNING COMMISSION

The racial shift has been accompanied by other related phenomena. By 1960 there were more than twice as many non-whites as whites among children under 20 and a slight predominance among young adults. The white reproduction rate was low while more Negroes were entering the child bearing age groups. This was due mainly to the sharp drop in young whites (20-49 year-old range) living in the District. The census data show a median age of 40.2 for whites compared to 27.0 for non-whites. The median age for native whites was somewhat lower, however. About 40 percent of the District's non-whites were 19 years old or less, compared to about 20 percent for whites in this age range. Thus, the District can be expected to experience a noticeable increase in its school age population, as well as among its teenagers and young adults.

Presently, more than 90 percent of the pupils in the District are Negro. This is one of the highest proportions for central cities in the United States. Our analysis uncovered nothing to suggest that this situation will change to one of racial integration in the near future. These are two facts from which all planning for the District must start.

A look at some of the demographic characteristics of the white and Negro populations may clarify this view. For instance, differences in the fertility ratio (number of children less than 5 years of age per 100 women of child-bearing age, 15-49) may suggest that the already high non-white proportion of public school children may increase in the future. This follows the outmigration of white parents and the increasing preference of middle-class individuals, white and Negro, for private and parochial schools in the Metropolitan area. Unless the present trends can be reversed, the prediction must stand that the District public schools will, within a decade, serve mainly a low-income Negro clientele. No other interpretation of these data is possible, nor will the trends be reversed by wishful thinking. Legal and desirable as racial integration is, experience in the past dozen or so years confirms that its base must be the neighborhood itself. Administrative schemes for desegregation in schools are partial measures, at best, weak palliatives in the face of holding actions in continued segregated housing practices. At their saddest, such measures for desegregating schools have propelled more whites yearly from the central city, deepening the isolation of the Negroes.

The high proportion of Negro children points to other problems not directly related to the school but which may, nonetheless, have an important effect on the education of District youth. Combined with the aged (65 years old and over), Negro children comprise a dependent population of formidable proportions within the District. This means that a large proportion of dependent persons must be supported by a smaller number of employable individuals. This decreases the productivity of such a community, as well as its tax potential. Combined with the loss of tax money from suburban dwellers (who use central city facilities without sharing their costs) the equation places an enormous burden on the city residents. This is especially so in the case of District Negroes. While only 45 tracts showed white dependency ratios of 500 or more (number of children less than 13 years old plus persons 65 years old or over per one thousand persons between the ages of 15 and 64), 76 tracts showed dependency ratios of that magnitude for Negroes. This predicament may be compounded by the fact that 42 of the 119 tracts exhibited proportions of 20 percent or more with reference to "family disorganization". In addition, 24 tracts showed median incomes of $4,000 or less while only 18 exhibited median family incomes as high as $10,000 or more. These persons reside in homes of low value (owner occupied units in 41 tracts showed a mean value of less than $15,000 and only 18 of the tracts showed as many as 50 percent of its rentors paying $100 or more monthly). This is so in spite of the fact that 45 tracts reported more than half of the wives working. Only 12 tracts showed less than one-third of the wives working. Only 12 tracts showed less than one-third of the wives working; only 5 tracts less than one fourth. In Washington, there are no tracts which are predominantly low-income white (median family income of $4,999 or less) nor high-income Negro (median family income of $10,000 or more).

For a large city, the District of Columbia has had a relatively low population density (around 12,400 persons per square mile in 1960, with an estimated increase of about five percent since then). The low density is reflected in the presence of many single-family neighborhoods. Some of these are presently being replaced by high-rise apartments.

The Negro population is hardly a homogeneous group. Economically and socially, the Washington Negro population is highly stratified, ranging from chronically impoverished welfare clients to the high-income residents in upper Northwest Washington. Because the federal government employs approximately 35.8 percent of all workers, the District has attracted and retained large groups of well-educated and socially well-adapted professional, semi-professional and clerical workers -- male and female, white and Negro. There is a large, well-educated middle class Negro population whose incomes and life styles are similar to those of the white community. On the whole, District residents (white and Negro) have had more years of education, higher incomes and lower unemployment rates than residents in the central cities of comparable metropolitan areas. Of course, evidences of racial discrimination in education and employment are visible in the wide differential in white and Negro family incomes ($7,690 vs. $4,800 in 1960) and in the high proportion of Negroes in the low-skill service jobs. The non-whites are less likely to be employed in white collar occupations and they are also less likely to be employed at all. They are more likely to work outside the District in surrounding areas and less likely to be self-employed or in federal service. Thus, by adjusting to the consequences of discrimination -- especially the reduced opportunities for education and economic advancement -- Negroes tend to remain in a low status. Not surprisingly, significant relationships appear between educational attainment and social and demographic characteristics.

Despite the emphasis upon the role of the recent southern Negro in-migrant to the District, our analysis suggests that the impact of this group has been overestimated. The newcomers include fewer poor Negro migrants than more highly educated persons, able to earn good salaries. Southern in-migrants of longer term residency than 1955 represent a larger group than those who arrived after that date. More important is the fact that the children of many of the in-migrants will have had their entire school experience in the District's schools.

Demographic mapping of the District (see Appendix) suggests a great deal of heterogeneity in the city. Washington appears to divide into at least five "zones:"

(a) Georgetown with its white affluent residents.

(b) Northwest Washington with its relatively integrated, middle-class residents.

(c) Anacostia-Maryland Boundary area where middle-class and upper-middle-class Negroes appear to be moving.

(d) Maryland Area Northwest of Anacostia where older settlements of middle-class Negroes reside.

(e) The "Disorganized Core" centered east of Fourteenth Street in the center of the city, where a convergence of problems involving poverty, housing, transitional neighborhoods and family disorganization is found.

There are areas of renewal and renovation which alter these patterns or promise to do so. However, the National Planning Commission estimates that 103,300 Washington households (more than one-third of the population -- 299,000 persons) live in

housing that is structurally sub-standard, overcrowded, lacking essential facilities, more expensive than the occupant can afford or a combination of these deficiencies.

Like most cities, Washington is marred by a core of urban blight adjacent to the central business district. Scattered throughout several areas, some blighted and some still good, are educational institutions and cultural centers whose student and professional populations might well serve as leavening for the social process. Mapping locates a poverty-stricken population, many of them Negroes, now moving across the Fourteenth Street line into formerly all-white areas. The result is the traditional social and demographic stress on the facilities (schools especially) of these areas. The growing middle-class Negro population finds relatively decent housing on the city's perimeters.

Our analysis suggests that public housing policies have not necessarily served the best interests of the entire community. On sites lying between the Capitol Mall and the rivers, urban renewal, slum clearance and rebuilding have ended by excluding impoverished Negroes from their former neighborhoods. Public policy has concentrated Negroes in public-housing developments adjoining high-rise semi-luxury units and single-family houses for small, white families. The schools serving this kind of community appear, however, to draw primarily the poorer Negro children while the white families in the vicinity are small and, on the whole, have fewer children. The outcome is relatively segregated schools in nominally integrated neighborhoods.

In summary, the District is a city of great contrasts. The dignity of the national and international capitol adjoins some of the worst slums in the country. As the nation's first predominantly Negro city, it houses an affluent segment of Negroes which has resided in the District for generations; a newer group of well-educated, salaried middle-class Negroes and a hard core of impoverished families. The population is three-fifths Negro, but its school system is more than nine-tenths Negro. Obviously, any consideration of the school program and population, construction and facilities must respect these racial and socio-economic characteristics of the District of Columbia's demography.

Chapter 3

District Citizens and Leaders View The Public Schools [1/]

How does the Washington community view the public schools and schooling in the District? Four approaches were used to develop an attitudinal map of the opinions held by the various segments of the community about the public school system: (a) inspection of the data for the Harris-Post Survey of 1966; (b) survey of some 400 parents carefully selected to represent a sample of the entire community; (c) interviews with community leaders and citizen groups; and (d) an analysis of Board minutes and newspaper accounts covering the past year.

The most important revelation of the study of attitudes was the difference between the Negro and white communities. The survey bared the great gulf that separates the attitudes, the behavior and the daily lives of the two groups. Even though both have lived in the District about the same length of time, they differ on virtually every characteristic examined, in some cases so significantly as to suggest that they live in two separate worlds.

The Harris-Post Survey

The Harris-Post Survey, conducted by Louis Harris Associates for The Washington Post in 1966, provides information on the attitudes of a sample of the District's residents, by race and income level. Questions deal with attitudes toward life in the District, its institutions, problems and suggested solutions.

Most of the Negroes (82 percent) in the sample sent their children to public school as compared to less than two-thirds of the whites. Table 3-1 shows that over a third of the college-educated white families sent their youngsters to private and parochial schools, compared to 17 percent of the college-educated Negro parents and only 3 percent of the Negro families with 11th grade education or less.

Table 3-1

Percent of Negro and White Parents in the Sample Which Sent Their Children to Public, Private and Parochial Schools

Kind of School	Total		College Educated Parents	
	Negro	White	Negro	White
Public	82	63	84	57
Private	3	12	6	17
Parochial	4	20	11	21

Source: Harris-Post Survey, 1966.

1/ Dr. Bert Swanson prepared the reports from which this material is drawn. The Parent Survey was conducted by Louis Harris Associates under the direction of Dr. Swanson and Mr. M. Edison. The Eugene and Agnes E. Meyer Foundation financed the Parent Survey.

The two groups also differ on the size of family: twice as many Negro families (a third) had four or more children in comparison with only 17 percent of the white families. The racial groups also differed on both education and income. (See Table 3-2.)

Table 3-2

Percent of Parents Sending Their Children to Public, Private or Parochial Schools by Parental Schooling, Income and Race

	Total Population	Public School		Private School
		Negro	White	Total
Level of Parent Education				
Eleventh grade or less	41	55	20	6
High School	29	26	24	31
College	29	16	56	61
Kind of School Parent Attended				
Public	72	80	62	41
Private	9	3	23	28
Parochial	6	2	9	32
Income				
under $5,000	26	33	10	8
$5,000 - $10,000	41	44	33	32
$10,000 or more	30	21	56	58

Source: Harris-Post Survey, 1966.

As for the educational background of the parents, four times as many whites had a college education as did Negroes: 60 percent compared to 16 percent. Seven times as many whites as Negroes (41 percent compared to 6 percent) had been educated in private or parochial schools. Finally, twice as many whites as Negroes (58 percent compared to 26 percent) had family incomes of $10,000 or more. It should be noted that there were equal proportions of Negroes and whites in the white collar skilled occupations, whereas 22 percent of the whites and only 5 percent of the Negroes worked in professional, executive, managerial or proprietary categories. Four percent of the whites and 18 percent of the Negroes were in the semi-skilled and unskilled labor and service categories.

Comparative Assessment of Washington's Problems. -- Both Negroes and whites ranked education as the fourth most important problem facing Washington. (See Table 3-3.) Improvement of the schools was also the fourth most important solution offered to deal with the community's problems. The respondents advocated building more schools, hiring better teachers and offering more vocational training.

The total sample cited "good schools" as the seventh most important reason for liking to live in the District. But the Negro respondents cited schools as the fourth most important reason. (See Table 3-4.) Upper-income Negroes, however, viewed the schools as the second most important factor. The whites, on the other hand, offered good schools as the fifth most important reason why they liked living in the District.

Table 3-3

The Five Problems and Their Solutions (in Rank Order) Considered Most Important by Washington Residents by Race and Income Level[1]

Negro			White		
Total Negro Sample	Low Income (under $5,000)	High Income ($8,000 or more)	Total White Sample	Low Income (under $8,000)	High Income $15,000 or more)
Problems[2]					
Crime (13)	Cost of living (16)	Home rule (11)	Crime (26)	Crime (14)	Race relations (8)
Housing (13)	Crime (15)	Housing (11)	Keep Negroes in their place (11)	Keep Negroes in their place (11)	Traffic (6)
Cost of living (11)	Housing (14)	Crime (9)	Home rule (10)	Race relations (10)	Education (6)
Education (10)	Juvenile delinquency (11)	Education (9)	Education (9)	Traffic (8)	Keep Negroes in their place (6)
Home rule (9)	Education (7)	Cost of living (9)	Housing (8)	Cost of living (8)	Crime (5)
Solutions[3]					
+Housing (33)	+Housing (31)	+Housing (32)	+Transportation (31)	+Transportation (37)	+Transportation (56)
+Law enforcement (22)	+Law enforcement (20)	+Schools (26)	+Police (21)	+Law enforcement (31)	+Law enforcement (30)
+Jobs (20)	+Jobs (17)	+Law enforcement (25)	+Housing (18)	+Schools (6)	+Race relations (15)
+Schools (17)	+Schools (10)	+Jobs (21)	+Schools (11)		+Schools (9)
+Race relations (13)	+Race relations (8)	+Race relations (18)			

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966

2/ Numbers in parentheses represent percent of respondents who mentioned a given problem or solution.

3/ + Indicates Increase or Improve the factor.

Table 3-4

Reasons Cited for Liking to Live in Washington (in Percents)[1/]

	Total D.C. Pop.	Negro			White		
		Total	Low Income	High Income	Total	Low Income	High Income
1. Living near big city	24	9	7	14	46	26	31
2. People friendly and considerate	16	20	19	25	10	16	8
3. Employed here	14	20	45	16	5	14	15
4. History & tradition of nation's capitol	12	9	-	13	17	6	14
5. Nice community	9	8	6	7	10	8	17
6. Nice neighborhood	9	12	12	12	-	-	2
7. Good schools	8	10	-	16	5	6	9

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966

With regard to the exodus of the whites, school improvement impressed the total sample as only the fourth most important remedy to attract white people back into the District. It was considered as second most important by the whites but to the Negroes, this move placed fifth in importance. (See Table 3-5.)

Table 3-5

List of Factors Suggested For Bringing Whites Back Into the District[1/]

	Total D.C. Pop.	Negro			White		
		Total	Low Income	High Income	Total	Low Income	High Income
1. Clean up slums	17	19	-	24	14	-	17
2. Improve race relations	14	11	-	11	16	-	18
3. Better housing	14	5	-	5	24	36	28
4. Improve schools	11	6	-	10	16	-	18
5. Home rule	10	8	-	10	12	-	28
6. Make safer	8	8	-	5	7	15	-

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966.

Table 3-6

Assessment of Quality of Community Life and Institutions Today Compared[1/] with a Few Years Ago and in the Future (in Percents)

	D.C. Total		Negro Total		White Total	
	Better	Worse	Better	Worse	Better	Worse
1. School						
Few years ago	44	13	48	23	21	13
Future	51	12	61	16	50	11
2. Housing						
Few years ago	36	26	43	31	27	18
Future	51	16	53	20	47	11
3. Public transportation						
Few years ago	31	29	32	32	31	24
Future	45	22	45	24	45	19
4. Raising family						
Few years ago	20	35	24	44	14	21
Future	34	21	36	28	31	11
5. Cost of living						
Few years ago	12	70	8	77	19	60
Future	19	54	20	59	18	45
6. Public safety						
Few years ago	12	57	13	66	11	44
Future	27	32	23	43	34	16
7. Traffic						
Few years ago	11	58	14	62	8	52
Future	24	45	25	43	23	48

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966

Were the schools improving? The two races disagreed. The Negro community was somewhat more optimistic (61 percent) than the whites (about half) that the quality of the schools will improve in the next five years. (See Table 3-6.) No doubt this optimism is based on past experience, for nearly half the Negro community believed that the schools have improved, compared to only 21 percent of the whites. The District citizens take a gloomy view of the future of public facilities. The Negro community saw better prospects for the schools than for any of the other public services. In fact, two-thirds of the Negroes believed that public safety already had grown worse and two-fifths believed that it will grow worse in the future. Three-fourths of the Negroes believed that the cost of living had risen and nearly 60 percent believed that it will rise in the future. Nearly two-thirds believed that the traffic situation had become worse, while 43 percent believed that it will become still worse. Nearly half the whites considered that public safety has worsened and 11 percent felt that raising a family in Washington will become even more difficult.

However, when it came to assessing future changes in living conditions for Negroes in the District, the whites were generally more optimistic that conditions will improve all along the line than were the Negroes themselves. (See Table 3-7.) For instance, more than two thirds of the whites believe that the Negroes will "live like everyone else," while only 45 percent of the Negroes shared this opinion. Over half the whites (56 percent) but only 44 percent of the Negroes believe that chances will be better for integrated education.

Table 3-7

Assessments of Expected Future Change in Living Conditions[1/] for Negroes in the District of Columbia (in Percents)

	D.C. Total		Negro Total		White Total	
	Better	Worse	Better	Worse	Better	Worse
1. Use hotels	63	3	61	5	66	2
2. Wages/salary	60	13	47	19	77	4
3. Live like everyone else	57	11	45	14	69	7
4. Promotion	56	15	45	14	69	7
5. Housing	49	17	41	19	61	13
6. Integrated Education	47	14	44	19	56	11

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966

The Parent Survey

Sampling plan. -- The Parent Survey was based on a sample of 400 parents (male and female heads of households, and wives of heads of households in which there was at least one child 18 years of age or younger). The sample was based on the 1960 Census data updated to July 1965 by the D. C. Demographic Unit, all of which was projected (through weighting) to 1967.

All census tracts were grouped on the basis of the 1965 District estimate of the percentage of Negro population within the tract. Forty sample points were then apportioned according to the number of persons estimated to live in each area. The breakdown was as follows:

	1965 Population Estimate (000)	Number of Sample Points
Area 1 (more than 90% Negro)	285.1	15
Area 2 (50-90% Negro)*	237.4	13
Area 3 (10-49% Negro)*	105.4	5
Area 4 (less than 10% Negro)*	135.8	7

* Areas which had very few children according to the 1960 Census were eliminated.

In each sample point selected, the interviewer had a carefully drawn route map with a clear starting point and a route direction. He was instructed to begin at the starting point and conduct an interview in each household in which an eligible respondent (male head of household or wife of a male head of household in which there was a child 18 years of age or younger) was found at home. In each sample point, the quota was 10 completed interviews, six with females and four with males.

Upon completion of the interviewing, each questionnaire was weighted to bring the sample into line with best estimates of current ratio of Negro-white families in the District:

	Negro:White Population		Negro:White Families
1960	55:45	1960	65:35
1965	61:39	1967	73:27 (estimate)

There was approximately a ten percent increase in Negro population relative to white between 1960 and 1965. Based on the assumption that the shift was greater among families than individuals, and allowing for the two years since the 1965 Study, a 13 percent increase was projected in Negro families relative to white families from 1960 to 1967.

In addition, the sample was weighted to bring the proportion of male and female heads of households and wives of male heads into line with the best estimate (based on 1960 census information

	White %	Negro %
Male Head	45	41
Wife of head	45	40
Female head	10	19

No precise comparison can be made between the two survey results. The Harris-Post Survey involved a sampling "residents"; the 1967 Parent Survey, only residents with school-age children. Nevertheless, for a view of general tendencies, comparisons are safe. (See Table 7-8.) There has been a noticeable change in the assessment of the schools which may reflect increased controversy surrounding the schools, the particular direction given the educational program in the interim or the fact that the Parent Survey focused on the District school system.

Table 7-8

Changes in Assessments of the District Schools from 1966 to 1967 (in Percents)

	1966[1]			1967[2]		
	Total	Negro	White	Total	Negro	White
Past improvement						
Better	44	48	21	35	40	24
Worse	13	23	13	24	26	22
Future years						
Better	51	50	50	46	50	38
Worse	12	9	11	21	19	27

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966

2/ The Parent Survey, 1967

In 1967, a quarter of the total population (nearly twice the previous total) believed that the schools had grown worse. Most of this shift in opinion appeared in the white community where twice as many respondents believed that the schools were less adequate than in the past. Expectations had also changed. Now nearly twice as many parents (21 percent of the total) believed that the schools will become worse. Again, there had been a signfficant change in the attitudes of the whites, 27 percent of whom now believed that the schools are getting worse as compared with 19 percent of the Negroes. Only 38 percent of the whites and half the Negroes believed the schools were improving.[1]

The Negroes remained hopeful about opportunities for social progress, a third of them believing Washington to be a better place in which to live today than years ago. This contrasts with 40 percent of the whites who felt that the city is not as good as it was a few years ago. (See Table 3-9.) The schools were singled out as the area where change and/or improvement had taken place by 40 percent of the Negroes, compared to a

1/ In another analysis of the 1966 survey, it was found that more upper-income Negroes (one-third) agreed that the schools were deteriorating than did the lower-income Negroes (18 percent) and the higher-income whites (13 percent). More of the low-income whites (20 percent) and upper-income Negroes (16 percent) in that survey foresaw a bleak future for the schools in the next five years. In the Parent Survey, over a third of college-educated Negroes saw the schools as having improved, compared with 16 percent of the college-educated whites. Half the college-educated Negroes and a third of the college-educated whites now believe that the schools will improve in the next few years.

quarter of the whites. In addition, half of the Negroes and 38 percent of the whites had expectations that the schools will improve more in the near future than will any other conditions of Washington life.

Table 3-9

Assessment of Washington as a Place to Live and Its Schools (in percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Place to live			
Better	30	33	22
Same	36	36	32
Not as good	28	25	40
Not sure	6	6	6
Past improvement of schools			
Better	35	40	24
Same	26	23	31
Not as good	24	26	22
Not sure	15	11	23
Future improvement of schools			
Better	46	50	38
Same	17	15	22
Not as good	21	19	27
Not sure	16	16	13

Assessment of School Characteristics -- Certainly one thing is clear -- virtually no one believes that the Negroes in Washington are receiving a better education than the whites. (See Table 3-10.) Of the total sample, 41 percent believed that the whites are receiving a better education, while 42 percent believed that both groups are receiving education of the same quality. However, nearly two-thirds of the whites and only 35 percent of the Negroes believed that education was equally good for both groups.

Table 3-10

Assessment of Quality of Education for Negroes and Whites (in Percents)

Quality of Education	Total	Negro	White
Negro better	1	1	1
White better	41	48	27
Same	42	35	61
Not sure	15	16	12

Nearly half the Negroes but only about a quarter of the whites believed that the whites are receiving a better education. The reasons cited for this belief: (a) 40 percent in the sample simply stated that the whites had better schools; (b) 20 percent believed that the whites had more up-to-date textbooks; (c) 17 percent (28 percent of the whites) stated that teachers refused to serve in Negro schools; and (d) 13 percent of the total sample believed that teachers demanded more respect and discipline from white children.

Two major components of the school system were selected for analysis: (a) first, the facilities, services, programs and educational practices; (b) second, the school officials and personnel. No single aspect of the schools was considered excellent by a majority of the respondents. This does not mean that the schools were perceived as unsatisfactory but rather that few Washingtonians viewed the schools or their component parts in terms of the "excellence" sought by Secretary John Gardner of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

The single aspect that came near a rating of "excellent" was the special programs for the disadvantaged, such as Operation Head Start. Nearly half (43 percent) of the total population rated these special programs as excellent while another 47 percent said that they are pretty good. Nearly two-thirds viewed the curriculum as good, 9 percent as excellent, while 58 percent rated vocational education programs, textbooks and transportation as good. On the other hand, half the sample stated that school buildings, athletic facilities and extra-curricular programs were poor/or fair. (See Table 3-11 for the detailed percentages and Table 3-12 for the rank order ratings.)

Table 3-11

Public School Parent Assessment of District School Characteristics

	Program for disadvantaged children (Head Start)	Curriculum	Vocational education	Textbooks	Transportation	Program for gifted children	Lunch program	Counseling	Extracurricular activities	Athletics	Buildings
Negro											
Excellent	43	9	7	8	7	11	9	10	3	6	8
Pretty good	50	62	60	55	61	47	49	49	49	38	36
Only fair	7	25	22	28	19	23	23	32	33	29	32
Poor	--	4	11	9	13	19	19	14	15	28	24
White											
Excellent	30	14	18	16	11	25	4	17	15	13	12
Pretty good	53	72	62	71	49	49	48	56	58	48	45
Only fair	10	10	10	10	19	12	14	17	12	19	29
Poor	7	4	9	3	21	14	34	10	15	22	14
Total											
Excellent	43	9	10	9	10	12	7	11	6	9	8
Pretty good	47	63	58	57	54	46	50	45	50	38	37
Only fair	9	22	20	23	20	24	21	29	28	27	33
Poor	1	6	12	11	16	18	22	15	16	26	22

Table 3-12

Rank Order Rating Attributes of District of Columbia School System

Rank Order for Total Population	Negro	White
1. Special program for disadvantaged (Head Start)	1	3
2. Curriculum	2	2
3. Vocational education	4	4
4. Textbooks	5	1
5. Transportation	3	10
6. Special program for gifted	7	5
7. Lunches	8	11
8. Guidance counseling	6	6
9. Extracurricular activity	9	7
10. Athletic facilities	10	9
11. School building	11	8

When asked about the rigidity of the curriculum and the freedom of teachers to adapt the curriculum to different classes, nearly a third of the total respondents were not sure; half the sample indicated that the curriculum was not too rigid; and only 20 percent thought that it was too rigid. Three quarters of white parents compared with half the Negro parents felt that the curriculum was not too rigid. To a question regarding the teaching of Negro History, virtually no one thought that the amount taught was too much. Half the population thought it was too little and 18 percent considered the emphasis about right. Two-thirds of the Negro parents thought it was too little and over half the white parents were not sure.

Views on the Track System. Considering the recent publicity given to tracking and its status as the most controversial aspect of the public school system in the past year or so, it is interesting to note that only a third of the sample indicated that they were "familiar with the track system." No more than a quarter of the Negroes were familiar with this system, and only half of the whites. The vagueness may reflect a lack of communication between the school system and the community. If this is so, non-communication may be the source of a great deal of the controversy. True, of the Negro population that was familiar with the track system, three-fifths believe that it does "not work well," while of the whites familiar with its operation, half considered that it does. (See Table 3-13.)

A third of those who were familiar with the track system and viewed it favorably thought that it does help the students to develop their abilities to a greater extent while a quarter thought that it is especially helpful to the slow and gifted pupils.

Table 3-13

Parent Assessment of the "Track" System in the District Schools
(in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Familiar with track system			
Yes	33	27	49
No	53	57	45
Not sure	14	16	5
How does it work			
Well	35	27	52
Not well	47	60	24
Not sure	18	13	24
Reasons for working well			
Help develop abilities	35	29	48
Help both slow and gifted	23	14	43
Reasons for not working well			
Too rigid	31	37	20
Stigma	21	30	14
No incentive	15	15	8
Not uniform application	9	13	8
Too much pressure on upper tract	4	6	4
A. O.	3	4	2
Don't know	8	2	8
Children in proper track			
Yes	60	59	65
No	12	15	7
Not sure	28	26	28
Should consider scholastic ability and background			
Yes	60	59	65
No	12	15	7
Not sure	28	26	28
What factors should be considered			
I. Q.	62	61	63
Reading level	51	47	61
Grades	46	44	55
Pupil behavior	30	31	24
Teacher's judgment	30	24	43
Type of home	7	8	6
Race	2	3	2
Other	2	2	3
Not sure	8	11	2

Of those who opposed the track system, 37 percent of the Negroes and 20 percent of the whites believed that it was too rigidly applied; 30 percent of the Negroes and 14 percent of the whites believed that it placed a stigma on those in the lowest track; 15 percent of the Negroes and 8 percent of the whites felt that it provided no incentive for the students and 13 percent of the Negroes and 8 percent of the whites believed that it was not uniformly applied throughout the system.

Yet, most of those familiar with the track system thought that their children were in the proper track (60 percent of the total sample). Only 12 percent thought that they were not in the right track. Nearly three-fourths of the whites with a college education thought that their youngsters were in the right track, compared to 55 percent of the college-educated Negroes.

Did they approve of the procedures used for assigning children to different classes on the basis of scholastic and background factors? Two-thirds of the sample said "yes" and only 18 percent said "no." Three-fourths of the whites and two-thirds of the Negroes believed that the tracks should be based on scholastic and background factors. When asked to select more specific factors, 62 percent of the total sample agreed that I.Q. is the most important determinant, followed by reading level (50 percent), grades (46 percent), pupil behavior (30 percent), and the teacher's judgment (30 percent). The most marked differences between the Negro and white parents on the question was the whites' distinct preference to leave track assignments to the teacher's judgment rather than to other data.

Parental Views of School Personnel. Parents tended to rank or rate the school personnel and officials somewhat higher than the curriculum or other aspects of the schools. However, only 16 percent of the total sample rated the teachers as excellent, 45 percent as pretty good, 25 percent as only fair and 3 percent as poor. (See Table 3-14.) The

Table 3-14

Parent Assessment of Teachers in the District School System (in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Rating teachers			
Excellent	16	16	28
Pretty good	45	44	58
Only fair	25	31	11
Poor	3	3	1
Not sure	11	6	2
Teachers' interest in children			
Very interested	32	31	60
Somewhat	48	53	32
Hardly	11	12	5
Not sure	9	4	3
Teachers' understanding of D.C. life			
Excellent	8	6	17
Pretty good	45	49	56
Only fair	27	29	17
Poor	7	7	5
Not sure	13	9	5

whites tended to view the teachers more favorably than did the Negroes; over 28 percent rated them as excellent, 58 percent as pretty good, 11 percent as only fair and 1 percent as poor. A third of all parents believed that teachers were really "very interested" in the children. Twice as many whites (60 percent) as Negroes (31 percent) believed that the teachers are "very" interested; half the Negroes believed that the teachers were "somewhat" interested. Only 12 percent of the Negroes and 5 percent of the whites thought that the teachers were "hardly" interested. However, a scant 8 percent of the total sample believed that teachers had a real understanding "of the problems the child faces in growing up in Washington."

One of the provocative findings was in response to the question: "If you had a choice, would you rather have your children taught mostly by Negro teachers, white teachers, or does it make any difference one way or the other?" The overwhelming majority of both Negroes and whites (three fourths) responded that it makes no difference, while 12 percent of the Negroes and one percent of the whites preferred Negro teachers and 24 percent of the whites and 6 percent of the Negroes preferred white teachers.

When asked why they rated the teachers as they did, twice as many whites (39 percent) as Negroes based their favorable response about the teachers on the fact that "their children made excellent progress." Twice as many whites (19 percent) also stated that the teachers showed a real personal interest in the students. On the other hand, 15 percent of the Negroes cited the teacher's lack of interest in the student as the basis for their dissatisfaction with teachers.

The assessment of the Superintendent of Schools by the total sample was about the same as that for the teachers. However, the Negroes were far less satisfied than the whites with the Superintendent. Only 10 percent of the Negroes considered the Superintendent "excellent" while 17 percent said that he was "poor." (See Table 3-15.) In contrast, 41 percent of the whites rated him as excellent and only 7 percent as poor.

Table 3-15

Assessment of the Superintendent and the School Board (in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Superintendent			
Excellent	18	10	41
Pretty good	47	50	40
Only fair	21	23	12
Poor	14	17	7
School board			
Excellent	7	9	5
Pretty good	51	52	46
Only fair	31	32	29
Poor	11	7	20

The School Board received the smallest vote of confidence from the parents. Only 9 percent of the Negroes and 5 percent of the whites rated the School Board's performance as excellent, compared to 7 percent of the Negroes and 20 percent of the whites who rated it as poor. Table 3-16 provides a comparison of the parents' assessment of the teachers, the Superintendent and the School Board. This tabulation shows that when the proportion of fair and poor ratings is subtracted from the excellent and pretty good, the response of the total sample ranked the teachers, Superintendent and School Board in

that order. For the Negroes the positive score was highest for teachers (26 percent) followed by the School Board (22 percent) with the Superintendent last (20 percent). The whites considered the teachers most favorably (74 percent), the Superintendent next (62 percent) and only 2 percent viewed the School Board more favorably than unfavorably. The white population was much more positively disposed both toward the teachers and the Superintendent and less favorably disposed toward the Board of Education than were the Negroes.

Table 3-16

Comparative Assessment of District Teachers, the Superintendent and the School Board (in Percents)

	Teachers	Superintendent	School Board
Total			
Good (excellent, pretty good)	61	65	58
Poor (only fair, poor)	28	35	42
Difference (good-poor)	33	30	16
Negroes			
Good (excellent, pretty good)	60	60	61
Poor (only fair, poor)	34	40	39
Difference (good-poor)	26	20	22
Whites			
Good (excellent, pretty good)	86	81	51
Poor (only fair, poor)	12	19	49
Difference (good-poor)	74	62	2

Patterns of Influence in School Matters. The parents were asked what they thought happened when they contacted school officials about a school problem and whether they thought they would get a sympathetic hearing and action. Over 80 percent of the total sample, both Negro and white, believed that the teacher would understand and try to help. (See Table 3-17.) About the same proportion thought that the principal would understand and try to help. But less than half the total population (61 percent of the whites and 43 percent of the Negroes) thought that the Superintendent would understand and try to help. Twenty percent of the total (22 percent of the Negroes and 14 percent of the whites) thought that the Superintendent would listen but would try to avoid doing anything about a problem presented by them. Only 8 percent thought that the Superintendent would ignore them and a full quarter were not sure what he would do. More than a third (36 percent) of the college-educated Negroes thought that the Superintendent would only listen and avoid doing anything as compared to only 11 percent of the college-educated whites.

Even fewer (42 percent) of the total sample thought that the School Board would understand and try to help. A quarter thought they would listen but would avoid doing anything and almost a third were not sure what the School Board would do. Again, half of the college-educated Negroes (the highest of any group) believed that the School Board would merely listen and avoid doing anything, as compared to only 16 percent of the college-educated whites.

School officials were viewed as more responsive than other District officials to parent or citizen interest. Most of the sample (36 percent of the Negroes and 47 per-

Table 3-17

Assessment of How School Officials Would Respond to Parental Problems
(in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Teachers			
Understand, try to help	81	81	86
Listen, avoid doing anything	10	11	6
Ignore	2	2	-
Not sure	7	6	8
Principals			
Understand, try to help	78	78	78
Listen, avoid doing anything	11	11	12
Ignore	3	3	-
Not sure	8	8	10
Superintendent			
Understand, try to help	47	43	61
Listen, avoid doing anything	20	22	14
Ignore	8	9	5
Not sure	25	26	20
School Board			
Understand, try to help	42	43	41
Listen, avoid doing anything	23	26	19
Ignore	6	5	8
Not sure	29	26	32

cent of the whites) believed that the Superintendent generally acts pretty much on his own, while only a quarter of the total sample believed that the School Board acts independently. Another quarter believed that the School Board does what the more influential people in the community want. Better than a quarter of the sample was not sure what the Superintendent would do; a third was not certain about the School Board; and an even larger proportion (40 percent) was uncertain to whom the city officials respond most. One thing was clear -- only a handful of the community has had any contact with the Superintendent (8 percent) or the School Board (6 percent). (See Table 3-18.)

Thus, interestingly enough, when respondents were asked what is the most effective way to make one's views known in the school system, they cited the PTA most frequently. Half the Negroes and a third of the whites believed that the PTA is most effective. (See Table 3-19.) The principal and/or teacher were considered the next most effective means of making one's needs known. Going to the Superintendent was viewed as the least effective means by a quarter of the Negroes and 10 percent of the whites. The School Board was considered the second least effective means by 21 percent of the whites and 14 percent of the Negroes.

In the list of individuals and organizations that were believed to have done most to improve the District's public schools, the PTA was cited most frequently by the total sample (44 percent). (See Table 3-20.) Superintendent Carl Hansen followed closely being cited by 34 percent of the total. However, while almost two-thirds of the whites viewed him as having done most to improve the public schools, only 25 percent of the Negroes assigned him this rating. A quarter of the total sample of parents cited the School Board as compared to 14 percent who cited the press and 10 percent, the Congress.

Table 3-18

Who School and Other Officials Are Seen as Responding to Most (in Percents)

Who	Total	Negro	White
Superintendent			
What parents want	17	16	19
What influentials want	16	19	11
Act on own	39	36	47
Not sure	28	29	23
(Contacted the Supt.)	8	9	8
School Board			
What parents want	18	18	15
What influentials want	25	24	29
Act on own	25	27	21
Not sure	32	31	35
(Contacted the school board)	6	6	6
Other city officials			
What parents want	10	10	10
What influentials want	28	29	26
Act on own	22	22	20
Not sure	40	39	44

Table 3-19

Parent Assessment of the Most and Least Effective Way of Making Their Views Known (in Percents)

Who	Total		Negro		White	
	Most	Least	Most	Least	Most	Least
PTA	44	12	50	8	36	22
Principal or teacher	22	15	20	16	37	19
School board	11	15	11	14	9	21
Superintendent	7	21	4	25	9	10
Other	3	7	2	7	4	4
Not sure	13	30	13	30	5	24

Who should make the basic decisions concerning the school system? The community seemed more willing to have the voters decide than the School Board or the Superintendent, with two exceptions: the largest proportion of the total sample thought that the School Board should decide upon the school budget, compared to a quarter who felt that the voters should decide. Fourteen percent would leave the budget decision to the Superintendent. (See Table 3-21.) The whites showed a stronger preference toward the School Board (52 percent), compared to 38 percent of the Negroes. However when it

came to deciding upon teacher salaries, location of schools and assignment of students the largest proportion of the sample, especially of the Negroes, thought that the voters should decide. Of the whites, however, 44 percent thought that the School Board should decide about the location of the schools and student assignments, compared to 31 percent of the Negroes.

Table 3-20

Parent Assessment of Who Has Done Most or Least to Improve the District Schools (in Percents)

Who	Total	Negro	White
Has Done the Most			
PTA	37	41	40
Carl F. Hansen	34	25	63
School Board	26	26	26
President	14	17	13
Congress	10	9	12
Has Done the Least			
Sen. Byrd (W. Va.)	24	28	17
Marion Barry	13	11	24
Congress	11	9	18
Board of Trade	8	5	14
Julius Hobson	8	7	13

Table 3-21

Who Should Make Various School Decisions in the District (in Percents)

Issue	Total	Negro	White
School budget			
Voters	26	30	18
School board	42	38	52
Superintendent	14	12	19
Not sure	18	20	11
Teachers' salaries			
Voters	38	39	37
School board	30	31	29
Superintendent	14	11	22
Not sure	18	19	12
Locating schools and students' assignments			
Voters	37	41	23
School board	34	31	44
Superintendent	14	11	22
Not sure	15	17	11

Nearly two-thirds of both Negroes and whites were members of the PTA, 40 percent attended regularly and another 40 percent attended occasionally. (See Table 3-22.) About 40 percent of the Negroes and whites attended Parent Day; 20 percent of the Negroes and only 12 percent of the whites had not visited the schools at all. Half the whites and slightly more than a quarter of the Negroes had visited the school for reasons other than being called in by school officials or to protest the track system.

Table 3-22

Participation in District School Affairs (in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Belong to PTA			
Yes	64	62	63
No	36	38	37
Attend PTA meeting			
Regularly	41	43	40
Occasionally	39	40	38
Hardly ever	16	6	17
Never	3	2	5
Visit School			
Parents' Day	41	41	42
School official called me in	12	13	9
To protest tract system	2	2	2
Other	34	28	48
Did not visit at all	17	20	12

Strategies for Change. In October 1966, The Washington Post reported that if a referendum were held, home-rule would be passed by as much as a three to one margin because of the overwhelming support of the Negro community. Negroes in this sample favored home rule by 84 to 5 percent whereas the Whites were split 45 to 42 percent in favor. (See Table 3-23.) The poll preceded President Johnson's proposal to create a City Council, which would eventually be elected. An additional step would be a separately elected School Board. This proposal was supported by over half (55 percent) of the total sample responding to the Parent Survey. Even a majority of the whites (51 percent compared to 57 percent of the Negroes) favored the proposal--one of the rare issues that won majority support from both Negroes and whites.

Table 3-23

Attitude Toward Home Rule (1966) and Elected School Board (1967) (in Percents) 1/

	Total	Negro	White
Home Rule			
Favor	52	84	45
Oppose	31	5	42
Not sure	17	11	12
Elected School Board			
Favor	55	57	51
Oppose	27	24	34
Not sure	18	19	15

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966.

Schools were cited as the area most likely to improve (64 percent) if home-rule were adopted. (See Table 3-23.) Nearly three-fourths of the Negroes predicted improvement, as did half of the whites. Tax increases were cited as the worst thing that would happen if home-rule were adopted, especially by the whites (53 percent).

Table 3-24

Expectation of Home Rule on D. C. Community Programs (in Percents) 1/

		Total D.C. Population		Total Negro		Total White	
		Improve	Worse	Improve	Worse	Improve	Worse
1.	Schools	64	10	73	6	50	16
2.	Parks and playgrounds	62	9	70	3	49	17
3.	Welfare aid	61	10	69	7	49	14
4.	Police protection	57	10	73	6	31	16
5.	Urban renewal	57	10	68	5	39	18
6.	Equal protection	57	11	69	6	37	19
7.	Recreation facilities	56	6	64	4	42	9
8.	Courts	47	11	59	8	27	16
9.	Swimming facilities	47	6	56	3	34	11
10.	Traffic	38	16	43	17	30	14
11.	Taxes	19	43	25	37	9	53

1/ Adapted from Harris-Post Survey, 1966.

Half of the Washington parents in the sample still desired the integration of their schools. A third preferred improving the quality of education in the segregated schools. Fifty-eight percent of the Negroes and a quarter of the whites favored integration as a prime goal; half the whites as compared to a quarter of the Negroes, preferred to improve the segregated schools.

Given the general desire for integrated education, the respondents were asked their opinions of two quite different approaches to this end. The first was bussing of students: half of the total sample opposed this move and 38 percent favored it. More than two-thirds of the whites opposed bussing while only 45 percent of the Negroes favored it. (See Table 3-25.) The second approach was the creation of some form of metropolitan school district which would link the District schools with those in suburban Maryland and Virginia. The total sample was more strongly opposed to such a new unit; opposed, 54 percent while only 29 percent approved; only a third of the Negroes favored this proposal and about half were definitely opposed, while two thirds of the whites opposed it.

A more individual alternative for improving one's educational opportunities would be to send one's children to private schools. Somewhat more than a majority of the total population had not considered private school, 40 percent (39 percent of the Negroes, 47 percent of the whites) had thought of such an alternative. (See Table 3-26.) A total of two-thirds of the Negroes and 46 percent of the whites cited money as the reason why they could not send their children to private school. If they had the money, however, more than half the Negroes and a quarter of the whites would send their children to private school.

Responding to statements about fear that exists in the system -- specifically whether punitive action against the child might be taken if a parent protested -- a

Table 3-25

The Use of Bussing and Creation of Metropolitan School District to Enhance District Integration (in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Position on integration			
Integrate schools	49	58	26
Improve segregated schools	33	27	48
Not sure	18	15	26
Bussing			
Favor	38	45	21
Oppose	50	41	69
Not sure	12	14	10
Metropolitan school district			
Favor	29	34	19
Oppose	54	49	67
Not sure	17	17	14

Table 3-26

Consideration Given to Sending Children to Private Schools (in Percents)

	Total	Negro	White
Thought of private school			
Yes	40	39	47
No	57	58	53
Not sure	3	3	-
Reasons why not			
Money	62	67	46
Public Schools good	22	18	30
Doing well in public school	6	4	14
Representative public school	6	3	17
Travel distance	6	5	8
Would send children to private school if had the money			
Yes	50	56	26
No	39	35	60
Not sure	11	10	15

third of the Negroes were not sure and almost another third thought that it might influence the way that their children were treated. Two-thirds of all whites thought that it would not affect treatment; the college-educated Negroes were most sensitive, with 41 percent believing that sanctions would be exercised against their children, compared to only 13 percent of the college-educated whites. (See Table 3-27.)

Table 3-27

Effect on Children if Parent Protests School Action (In Percents)

Effect	Total	Negro	White
Might influence way child is treated	29	30	19
Would not influence way child is treated	42	36	68
Not sure	29	34	12

In Summary. There is a considerable gulf between the attitudes of the Negro and white communities which impedes achieving the goals or carrying out the strategies of school officials to keep pace with the enormous social changes occurring in the District. The school system is essentially resegregated; the vast majority of its pupils are Negro and poor. Few people in the District grade the schools as excellent and most voice an increasing pessimism about their possibilities of future improvement.

If the great distance between the District's top school leadership and the essentially Negro clientele is allowed to remain and grow, increased tensions must follow along with deterioration in the quality of public education.

There is a possible antidote: what is indicated is a series of bold steps to rearrange the decision-making structures and procedures in order for the system to become more responsive to the problems and needs of the students and of the community.

To accomplish this redesign, several contradictory, even paradoxical, factors must be understood. The first is the high level of optimism, especially among the Negroes, for change. This optimism puts pressure on the school leaders to meet their eagerness for really good schools, creating a climate of tolerance and welcome to the agents for change. On the other hand, if radical improvement is not promptly forthcoming one must expect growing tensions and rejection, which will hurt not only school-community relationships but, more important, children in the classrooms.

A second factor to be considered is the small-town atmosphere of the District, which is reflected in the high degree of voluntarism and parent participation in school affairs. The school system must find new means of blending the volunteers' energies with the professionals' expertise. This calls for working partnerships between the school officials and the community supporters of the public schools.

A third key factor is that Washington is the federal city, now on the verge of gaining some degree of autonomy and self-determination. As the nation's capital, Washington represents resources of money, talent and energy in the federal government; in its prominent personnel, and its agencies and cultural centers. Thus far, the split personality between federal city and local community has been debilitating, especially in the drain upon the school system. The redesign of the District's schools must pull the total community together by shaping a common purpose strong enough to sustain a model urban school system.

The final factor which faces all metropolitan communities today is the issue of "integration vs. quality education." Despite the fact that Washington's schools have resegregated into a predominantly Negro school system, the paradox remains. As the survey shows, well over half the Negroes definitely preferred integrated school while only a quarter of the whites showed a firm preference for integration. Half the whites

would improve the segregated schools instead while only a quarter of the Negroes accepted this position.

The Community Leaders Speak

Information concerning the views of community leaders was obtained in several ways: interviews were conducted with more than two dozen community leaders and a series of meetings with hundreds of parents and other interested citizens included sessions sponsored by the D. C. Citizens for Better Public Education, the UPO Neighborhood Development Center personnal and others. Leaders were selected as affiliated with groups known to be "influential" -- social, civic, church-affiliated, anti-poverty. Beginning with known leader groups, additional names were suggested by persons interviewed.

In the interviews, half the community leaders cited home-rule as a major community problem. Education and housing were close behind, followed by questions of race relations, public finance, crime and employment opportunities. When asked specifically to assess 17 community problems, most leaders selected the quality of education and the school budget as the two most important problems facing the community. These were followed by a concern for mental health programs, urban renewal, and welfare as well as crime, juvenile delinquency, and the communications between the various groups and neighborhoods in the District. They did express a concern about racial segregation in the District, yet a substantial proportion of the leaders believed that nothing much could be done about the problem.

Almost all the leaders believed that the residents of the District face a host of major problems in making their community a better place in which to live. When asked to assess the schools more specifically, the leaders identified some 50 or more aspects of public education. With rare exceptions, most were cited as problems, rather than as assets of the District school system. Most frequently cited was inadequate physical facilities, followed closely by the need for better counseling, inadequacies of the track system and additional special programs for the disadvantaged. Other areas identified as troubled included:

Better utilization of federal monies
Inter-agency cooperation
Administrative decentralization
Better community relations
Recruitment of better qualified teachers
Metropolitan nature of the District's school problems
Exodus of whites to the suburbs
Competition for staff
Desegregation and integration

Most of the leaders agreed that there is no "excellence" in the public schools. They differed, of course, on what was specifically wrong with the schools, what is causing the problems, and, most perplexing of all, what to do for solutions. For instance, one leader judged the quality of education in the District as far lower than in most communities because of the resegregation of the schools and the fact that the schools are now predominantly Negro. He saw this condition as making it more difficult to recruit teachers, Negro or white.

He believed that given the history of their limited opportunity, Negro teachers are less well qualified than their white counterparts and that the educational process itself has suffered. Whether it is true or not, the important point is that parents

believed this widely. How else (this leader asked) can one account for the large difference between a community which is 58 percent Negro and a school enrollment of 93 percent Negro? He traced imbalance not to the many childless white couples but rather to the fact that the whites are sending their children to private or suburban schools, with an increasing number of middle-class Negroes doing the same. This particular leader felt that the problem of inferior education dates from the 1954 desegregation decision when the community failed to correct the sub-standard education in the Negro schools at the time when the two systems were merged.

Some leaders blamed deterioration of the public schools on the Negro family, others on a "penny-pinching" Congress. Other leaders, especially one Negro, felt that there are real sanctions in the school system and that students, parents and teachers are being intimidated. He hastened to add that on the whole this was attitudinal and not physical. One leader, opposed to the school officials, declared that as soon as the educators learned who he was, they changed their behavior toward his children.

Another leader saw the need for profound change in the school system. She viewed most of the educational leadership as deeply and sincerely concerned for the public schools but not especially for the Negroes or for the poor. This bias has favored patchwork strategies. This same critic made a distinction between the resistance to profound change at the policy level and observable change at the administrative or implementation level. She felt that most leaders are willing to concentrate on the latter because "tactics" give them and the community time to adjust to the great social changes which have altered the District.

One leader characterized the schools as playing an unusual role as the one stable element in community life. When events go badly, there are always the schools to rely on, regardless of their quality, she believed. Other leaders believe that in a community like Washington, the school must assume many of the functions of a social institution plus its traditional educational duties. Thus far, the school is not linked to the social services. It is fair to ask if this should not happen, since the public schools of Washington serve a clientele that needs help in areas bounded by social criteria. One leader, quite depressed and pessimistic about the state of community affairs in Washington, spoke of the schools as "an island of possible goal-directed institutional behavior that can produce results."

Most of the leaders were critical of the track system even though they supported some form of ability grouping in the classroom. The fact that tracking has become a cause célèbre in Washington has many explanations. Some have used opposition to the track system to attack the school administration. As one leader put it, "The track problem is a good example of how we pick up a single item as a symbol. It is for me however, the wrong symbol at the wrong time." On the other hand, a militant Negro minister said that tracking was not a problem in itself but that it was being used to keep effective the "invidious attitudes toward the Negro." One PTA leader felt that the issue of tracking was tearing up the community, hurting the children and having a bad effect on them. She observed, "We are highly confused over what the real solution, or even what the real problem is."

Most leaders believe that the track system implied a "rut" and that the label itself tends to convey a rigidity that does not allow for a youngster to progress from one track to another. Some leaders contended that pupils are placed in the wrong track and that testing is not well adapted to the children of the urban ghettos. Most would agree that the track system itself needs far more flexible and sensitive administration.

While there was general disapproval of the curriculum, few leaders offered specific criticism or suggestions. One felt qualified to discuss the subject because she was involved in teacher education. She attributed the reasonably good quality of teachers in the District to the Amidon Plan, which appeared to her rigid yet not necessarily so. This leader felt that Negro teachers in the District are very sympathetic to their students.

Again, the leaders were imprecise about criticizing the quality of textbooks: "much more could be done to improve the textbooks." One felt that federal aid had already begun to have an impact on providing more and better books. However, she felt that the texts were out of date, there were not enough of them, and in those schools where youngsters were being bussed in, additional materials had not been ordered for them. Therefore, schools turned to the PTA for help. Another spokesman described textbooks as "outrageous," adding that there were considerable problems with the procedures for applying for books and they often arrived late in the school year.

Only one leader commented on the vocational schools, calling them a "dumping ground." He thought that the school system had cut back on them because they were not "producing" sufficiently for the youngsters to get jobs, even in the current open employment market. Going further, he viewed the school system as simply not doing enough to coordinate the educational program to the needs of the job market.

Counseling came under much more direct and sharp criticism. The leaders stated repeatedly that the counselors are too few, too inadequately trained, and too inexperienced to be helpful to the District pupils. They charged that the approach to counseling is hazy; some counselors assigned to vocational guidance made little effort to correlate educational opportunities and jobs. One leader observed that the high school counselors spent most of their time filling out college applications and another saw the counseling position as simply a stepping stone to a post of assistant principal or principal.

To the leaders, federal programs for the disadvantaged suffer from three faults: there are far too many, they are all of a pilot or demonstration nature and they tend to be abandoned once initiated. Little is learned and virtually nothing applied from each experience that could develop into a new pattern within the on-going educational process or system, it was felt. In fact, one person believed that these programs should not be channelled through the educational system at all but through the other community groups such as an antipoverty group.

The leaders were less favorably impressed with the teaching staff than were the rank and file of parents in Washington. One white leader put it as follows: "The District teachers are essentially middle-class Negroes and they are just as prejudiced as the whites." She viewed the system as a matriarchy of women principals unwilling to adjust to meet the special needs of the disadvantaged students. This leader attributed the phenomenon to the carryover when the Negro and white schools were desegregated, at which time the Negro women principals predominated.

Many others, however, attributed the low quality of teachers to the District's customary hiring in October, by which time the better applicants are no longer available. One leader blamed Congress for lagging in the budgetary process. Some blamed the personnel practices such as inept recruitment and evaluation of applicant credentials. One of the more serious charges against the Washington teachers was their low expectations of student achievement. One leader suggested a system of "accountability." Others urged a great variety of in-service training.

Considerable concern was expressed by the leadership about the insulation of the school system from the rest of the community. One Negro leader said, "The educators are aloof from the major problems in the community. They take on the role of the hired expert. They discourage people from taking an interest in the problem." This person disagreed strongly with the educator's perception that the schools provide a service for those who can use it, and for those who cannot, "It is tough luck." He believed that the schools must adjust themselves to the needs of the clientele.

Another Negro leader considered school officials entirely unresponsive to the needs of the community. He inferred from a series of forums that quite "a large number of teachers and principals" were reluctant to identify themselves for reasons that implied retaliation from Central Headquarters. These people expressed real fear of "sanctions" in the system.

As might be expected, much of the rancor fell on the chief administrative officer, Superintendent Carl Hansen. Some leaders felt that the problem was one of personality: "He is rigid, inflexible, dogmatic, his own worst enemy." Other respondents said that there was not sufficient clarification or understanding of policy of delegated authority or freedom of discretion within certain limits. In brief, the problem lies in inadequate communication about goals between headquarters and the rank-and-file teachers. Part of the trouble stemmed from dissension within the School Board, they felt, and the insecurities, uncertainties and fears of sanction within the total school system.

The Superintendent's Citizens Advisory Committee also came in for its share of criticism. Typically, one Negro leader discounted the council as having any real influence: "It has no power and simply allows itself to be used."

Interestingly, while the Superintendent is subject to criticism by community leaders, the School Board is ignored and seldom expected to play a prominent role in school decision-making. In fact, when talking about the Board of Education, the leaders quite frequently would lapse into a general discussion of political power or lack thereof in Washington, D. C. As one Negro civil rights leader stated:

> The history of Washington's schools is the history of power. The prospects of change must come from the radical people in the system. The School Board needs to understand a sense of history, so that it can serve as a catalyst to bring into the system the radical Negroes, because they do exist in the community.

Washington has a sufficiently small-town atmosphere to nurture many city-wide and local community organizations. It's city-wide organizations falter from lack of professional staffs and lack of know-how in shaping politically influential issues. The civil rights movement, for instance, is highly fluid and only occasionally speaks with the concerted voice of the Negro community. At the local level, only the PTA's and the local taxpayers associations are prominent; there are few other viable political and civic organizations. Though the PTA's are virtually the only organizations in the school arena, many people question their representativeness and their freedom from manipulation by local principals. One Negro civil rights leader recognized the wide acceptability of the PTA but maintained, "It is restricted and nonresponsive to the specific issues at hand."

If Washington parents, especially the Negroes, were optimistic about improvement of living conditions in their city, the leadership sounded pessimistic and trapped by their own political powerlessness. One Negro moderate, considered quite influential in community affairs, said:

> The most important problem facing the District is the inability of the city to effect change across the board, not just in education, but in everything. We have no say. We have little influence on the policies and laws of the people. The taxes, the expenditures, the selection of leadership, or the removal of our own leadership when they are dissatisfied -- we are totally impotent on what, when, and why it happens. The biggest problem is the long-lasting impact and damage of this kind of system on its people. It is much like being enslaved and defeated. They develop a self-centered mistrust and apathy all of which is understandable but dangerous to the community. They develop a pessimism about progress, and most of us live our lives this way. For every step we take forward in Washington, it seems to mean we take three backward.

A white leader, on the other hand, expressed her frustration about the highly critical environment in which decisions get made. She believed that seldom is there any constructive action. For the most part, the communities, especially the leaders, tear things apart. She admits that there is no one in leadership with broad ideas to move the community but complains that if anyone were to rise at this point, the climate is so critical that he would be unable to achieve anything.

The most obvious split at the community leadership level is along Negro-white lines. As one militant Negro put it, "Washington is in white hands. The top-decision-making people in every case are white, especially in the schools. All decisions are made by men in the white power structure." A white liberal on the other hand, charged that there is a very pervasive need, even among the Negroes, to maintain the status quo.

While the survey of parent attitudes revealed two distinct communities, one black and one white, conversations with leaders disclosed greater unity of reaction. The leaders, both black and white, were more condemnatory of the schools and much less hopeful of gains than were the parents. Of course, the leaders' pessimism grows out of their total political milieu. They see the weakness of public education as only one trouble area in the District of Columbia. The alienation of the leaders from their fellows and the citizens matches that of the school officials and the wide community. Both the officials and civic leaders, with few exceptions, seem insulated from the parents and the community. The former (school administrators) stand defensive, as if under attack. The latter (community leaders) stand in despair, frustrated by lack of followers and powerless to influence public policy. Under these circumstances, one is not surprised that few solutions were offered for school improvement.

Leaders' suggestions fell into two categories: (a) a paradox of quality vs. integrated education and (b) reform and decision-making arrangements.

While half of the parents (60 percent of the Negroes and a quarter of the whites) favored efforts to integrate the schools, only a third (a quarter of the Negroes and half the whites) preferred to upgrade the segregated schools. Most leaders interviewed seem to have abandoned their hope of integrating the public schools in Washington, D.C. One of the more militant white leaders who believed in the inevitability of desegregation-integration, was at a loss to propose steps toward that goal. She favored the educational park as the instrument for achieving balance in the schools. Others leaned towards rezoning and transferring some whites to the Negro schools, as well as rearranging some of the white classrooms in terms of size.

Most leaders viewed the white exodus to the suburbs as the heart of the problem. Yet few of them were able to envisage a metropolitan school district or a working

relationship with suburban school districts. The leaders' responses here agreed with the parents', half of whom opposed the metropolitan district concept (half of the Negroes and two-thirds of the whites) and 29 percent of whom favored such a district (a third of the Negroes and 19 percent of the whites). Few District leaders had any thing concrete to propose in the way of working relationships with suburban schools. One suggested the series of inter-school conferences in drama and the arts but recognized that the District schools had to take the initiative because the suburban schools "are sitting there in their smug complacency, content with the way things are, and the central schools, which have the problem in the first place have to initiate things." The suburban schools essentially are saying: "Don't bother me with the problems of the central city."

Nor can this view be termed hypersensitive. In discussions with suburban school officials and leaders in Montgomery and Prince George's counties in Maryland and in several communities in Virginia, there was almost complete satisfaction with the isolation of their schools from those of the District. The suburbs themselves show little or no inclination to concern themselves with the implications of working relationships with the District schools. Anxiety marked any discussion which led to a possible interchange of students in the classroom -- despite mention of one or two successful examples of such cooperation. It seemed that the best that could be hoped for on the contemporary scene is either area-wide conferences or an exchange of technology, such as computerized instruction.

Most of the ideas of the District leadership were aimed at strengthening the school system as an optimum educational force for its current population. Heavy reliance was placed on compensatory education programs which would infuse quality or raise it. Even white liberals paid heed to the "Black Power" advocates who appear now to be shifting their emphasis to building up the ghetto schools. Certainly, few of the leaders felt there was any workable alternative for Washington's predominantly Negro schools.

While most leaders deplored the poor school-community relationships, they fell apart on concrete remedies. Some would hire a new Superintendent of Schools and strengthen the professional staff, while others would institute a more effective public relations program. Still others sought ways to enhance citizen participation in the schools. Some proposed decentralization of the school system, to the distress of others. Decentralization advocates pointed out that the principal now may have more power than is desirable; for instance, one leader maintained that it is a well-known fact that the principals have "the deed to their schools". Others replied that any plan for decentralization must rest on a much clearer definition of the central authority so that the total system can work within some kind of equilibrium.

First among the important problems for the District to face, if decentralization were tried, would be the creation of a sense of polity in the sub-communities of the District. Here, under Congressional authority, there has been little experience in the citizen participation normal to any other community in the United States. Certainly the desire to bring the school and community closer together can best be realized through increased participation in public education. This should include school officials, administrators and teachers, the community, parents and citizens. Given the recent proposals of the President of the United States to move Washington toward some form of self-government, the schools of the future should and can lead the way.

School Board Communications

The task force conducted an analysis of communications -- oral and written -- from the audience attending School Board meetings as reported in the minutes from September

1965 to October 1966. These materials provide one measure of citizen opinion and also suggest that the School Board acts as a monitor of community sentiments and views of the schools. Every meeting invited communications from the audience. The respondents represented school and community organizations as well as individual parents and residents of the local neighborhoods. In a sense, these communications are but one of the principal means used by most Boards of Education to learn for themselves how the communities evaluate their school systems.

During the period analyzed, three basic kinds of expressions emerged. The first and most frequent, comprising nearly half the communications, centered on school plants. Spokesmen urged improvements or additions to educational facilities and services, such as new recreational equipment, painting or repair of school buildings, provision of new schools and libraries. Others called for the establishment of new programs, for example, to meet the needs of special groups of children such as the retarded, the highly talented and the culturally deprived. Some citizens recommended creation of a Division of Social Work.

The second group of statements (a third of the total communications) criticized administration of the schools. Again, most of the barbs struck at physical deterioration: the overcrowded classrooms, part-time classes, the condition of lavatories and drinking fountains and the like. Some people scored the administration for apathy about public safety and for friction between parents and staff or other over-all personnel matters.

A third set of statements (a quarter of the communications) were favorably disposed toward the schools. Many were testimonials to the Superintendent of Schools and his administration. Some support also was shown for the track system and the Model School Division (MSD) as well as for the then newly-proposed tri-school plan.

These data suggest that the Board of Education is a recognized center for citizens' appraisals (positive and negative) of the schools. It serves, as well, as a forum for public views of educational needs and proposals for school betterment. Many of the issues or problems, however, pertain specifically to a particular school or neighborhood. Local authorities could deal with them far more effectively than the city-wide Board of Education, which should be immersed in general policy-making and long-range planning. There remains the question of whether this Board is really accessible: it meets daytime in the center of town, except for occasional evening meetings. The many working parents probably would prefer evening sessions, perhaps in locations convenient to various sectors of the District.

Some Influential Community Groups

As in any large city, community influence is exerted on Washington's public agencies through constantly shifting coalitions between numerous and diverse groups and individuals. But lack of a local political structure tends to diffuse and weaken community influence here. There is no doubt of group influence, but it is difficult to pin down the precise nature or potential impact of this influence on the schools. What complicates this condition is the fact that the school system, consciously or not, has tended to avoid citizens' involvement or incipient control of school policy. Some cautious outreach has been visible: during the past year, individual Board members have "taken to the road," attending all kinds of meetings in various parts of the city.

There is the usual complex of committees and other civic channels for the expression of opinions about the schools. There are few cases of real partnership between the school system and such groups in the setting of school policies or the development

of educational goals. Some groups press openly, through public statements or through policy contact; other groups and individuals are influential behind the scenes.

Examples of groups whose influence is direct and public include:

The United Planning Organization. As the official poverty program funding agency for the District, UPO occupies a semi-governmental role in relationship to the school, with direct contact through the development and partial funding of portions fo the Model School Division (MSD) program. This relationship with the UPO has been a stormy one (see, for example, Strategy for Change: A Report on the Model School Division and Its Advisory Committee, "The Bazelon Report").

Throughout the year, the UPO and the school system have sparred over the MSD program. UPO has sought a more active part in programming for the MSD and the school system has just as actively sought to eliminate "UPO interference" in the operation. As the UPO share of the budget has diminished, its leverage has been reduced.

The UPO is significant as the only example of a direct cooperative relationship between a private agency and the public school system. The key to the quality of this relationship is the point at which UPO is brought into the planning: the schools have presented plans for UPO "approval"; there is no joint planning.

Cooperation between the Community Action Division of the UPO and the school system has been even more tenuous. Here again, the block is the stage at which UPO representatives are to participate in program initiation and development.

Semi-official educational groups, such as the D. C. Citizens for Better Public Education, Inc., and the Superintendent's Advisory Committee. Increased community ferment on educational matters, especially the track system, produced several groups designed to air the public's views on the schools system and its operation. In the case of the Superintendent's Advisory Committee, the administration gave official recognition to this goal. Two major issues surround these groups: their representativeness of the various interest groups within the community; and their success in influencing the system, on the one hand, and interpreting the system to the community on the other.

Composition of the Superintendent's Advisory Committee has been a source of controversy from the start. After year-long discussion it appeared to take more initiative on its own and to set its own operating goals. The group expanded in spring 1967 by widening representation from the low-income segments, such as the Neighborhood Development Centers.

The D. C. Citizens has a much larger membership (more than 600), its own offices, an executive secretary and staff. It has undertaken a number of programs, studies and forums.

As to effectiveness, both groups have provided public forums; only limited evidence hints at their influence on school policy or practice. For one thing (like most citizen groups), they have focused on the negative rather than on the positive, without advancing concrete proposals or alternatives. This posture has made it difficult for the school establishment to respond sympathetically. The D. C. Citizens has used its own staff of technicians to undertake several studies as a basis for recommending practical alternatives to existing policies. Both of these organizations have considerable potential as constructive forces for education in the future.

Civil Rights Groups. The District has all of the civil rights groups one finds in all large cities. Moderates like the Urban League have made public statements and,

it may be presumed, have at least a potential for influencing school policy. The most militant group -- and probably one with the smallest membership -- is ACT, whose chairman, Julius Hobson, was the plaintiff in the suit, Hobson vs. Hansen and the Board of Education. The decision by U. S. Appeals Court Judge Skelly Wright (U. S. District Court for the District of Columbia, Civil Action Number 82-66) on June 19, 1967 orders the Board of Education to take specific action. It raises the most immediate demands for school board consideration and response.

The Public Press. A great deal of the ferment over educational deficiencies in the District begins in newspapers. Both in editorial comment and in practically daily coverage of events taking place at Board meetings, Congressional hearings, in the schools and elsewhere, the press has attempted to build community awareness of school problems. The coverage of educational matters by Washington newspapers has fluctuated from irresponsible and inaccurate to the serious and factual. The school system has no public relations officer. As a consequence, during the past year especially, Board of Education members have been interviewed and quoted on personal opinions of school matters, without reference to the Board as an entity. Still, it is encouraging that newspapers, radio and television have taken so great an interest in education. Despite the occasional difficulties, media attention is potentially invaluable to the schools especially if a competent public information officer coordinates news releases.

Groups and individuals whose influence is "behind the scenes" constitute an informal power structure difficult to describe without further study. Yet, such a power structure difficult to describe without further study. Yet, such a power structure does exist in Washington and even a surface study permits the following observations about two of the components:

The Board of Trade. Probably the single most influential group in Washington is the Board of Trade, representing the major commercial and industrial interests in the District. It tends to be conservative and is dominated by white business interests, although some wealthy Negroes are represented. The attribution of "political" power to the Board must be tempered by the votelessness of the District's citizens. However, votes are not the only weapons available to members of the Board of Trade, who control the major share of economic resources in the community they seek to influence.

The Health and Welfare Council. This group represents all the major community groups in Washington involved or interested in health, welfare and related affairs. More important, this group represents the middle and upper class Negro community, as well as the non-commercial white community in the District. The Council dominates social and welfare activities in Washington.

The District's Negro and White Social Groups. The Study could not undertake an analysis of the social structure of the District. However, several sources of community power are readily visible. The Negro and white communities have their own loci of power and there are some points of overlap. The social structure of the Negro community seems to reflect the fact that Washington is essentially a southern town whose long-established Negro aristocracy provides most of the community leaders. Their roots and traditions in the District are deep. However, there are other "influentials" exercising leadership who do not reside in the prestigious northwest, who are relatively recent arrivals in the District and who relate to the lower income Negroes, rather than to the "aristocracy."

In Summary

It is apparent that relationships between the school system and its communities are weak and strained. Community leaders feel that they have little access to the

school administration and the Board, that their demands and suggestions are not heard nor acted upon. In general, there is a loss of confidence in the Board of Education, the school administration and in the "power structure" generally. The events of the past 18 months or so, from the "Pucinski Report" to Judge Wright's decision, have sharpened the community's uncertainties about its professional and lay leadership. The Board must devise clear, constructive and decisive action in the immediate future to restore this confidence.

Chapter 4

The District Pupil Population and Its Schools[1/]

Approximately 147,000 pupils attend more than 180 public schools in the District. During the academic year 1966-67, the actual enrollment ranged from a total of 147,530 on October 26, 1966 to 145,981 on March 2, 1967. These totals covered all levels and types of schools, including the D. C. Teachers College, which was still under the jurisdiction of the Board of Education. (See Table 4-1.)

Table 4-1

Pupil Membership in October 1966 and March 1967

Level and Type of School	Membership October 26, '66	Membership March 2, '67	No. of Schools
Elementary Schools			
Kindergarten	11,813	11,865	
Regular Grades 1-6	79,494	79,523	
Special Education	2,943	3,133	
Total	94,250	94,521	138[a/]
Junior High Schools			
Regular Grades 7-9	26,989	26,399	
Special Education	2,780	2,840	
Total	29,769	29,239	27
Senior High Schools			
Grades 10-12 and postgraduate	18,858	17,726	
Special Education	177	174	
Total	19,035	17,900	11
Vocational High Schools	2,897	2,688	5
Americanization Schools	640	662	1[b/]
Capitol Page School	53	68	1
Teachers College	887	903	1
Total Membership	147,530	145,981	182[c/]

a/ Does not include Military Road School and Lenox Annex (sub-standard) but does include six annexes (Benning, Crummell, Davis, Morgan, Powell and Stanton).

b/ Housed at Adams Elementary School.

c/ Does not include Capitol Page School, Sharpe Health School, Military Road School and Armstrong Adult Vocational Center nor the Americanization School as a Separate School.

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools

1/ Dr. Marvin Bressler and Dr. Steven Klineberg prepared a report from which some of this material is drawn.

The school system is organized on what is usually called a 6-3-3 basis: kindergarten through grade six, three-year junior high and three-year senior high. Five separate vocational high schools are maintained: two for boys only, one for girls only and two co-educational. The growth in pupil membership at each of these levels over the past 10 years is shown in Table 4-2. In that period, the elementary schools have grown by 21,484 pupils; the junior high schools by 9,859; the senior high schools by 6,436; and the vocational high schools by 509. The 10-year projections for pupil

Table 4-2

Pupil Membership in Regular Day Schools for 10-year Period

School Year	Elementary School	Junior High School	Senior High School	Vocational School
1957-58	72,766	19,910	13,599	2,388
1958-59	75,382	20,430	13,555	2,389
1959-60	77,817	22,071	13,190	2,186
1960-61	80,805	24,419	12,696	2,274
1961-62	83,733	26,866	12,973	2,608
1962-63	86,147	28,640	14,339	2,688
1963-64	87,792	29,759	16,385	2,924
1964-65	89,719	29,922	18,189	2,894
1965-66	92,665	29,180	18,694	2,858
1966-67	94,250	29,769	19,035	2,897

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools

populations prepared by the School Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation predict a high of 166,100 in 1971-72, dropping off to 155,300 in 1976-77.

Table 4-3

Projected Pupil Enrollments, 1966-1967, for All Levels and Types of Schools

Year	Projected Enrollment
1966-67	147,530[1/]
1967-68	154,700
1968-69	159,600
1969-70	162,900
1970-71	165,100
1971-72	166,100
1972-73	164,500
1973-74	162,200
1974-75	159,900
1975-76	157,500
1976-77	155,300

1/ Actual membership as of October 1966.
Source: Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation (March 1967)

These forecasts differ from those of the National Capital Planning Commission, which expects an even sharper increase by 1985. Table 4-4 contains the NCPC projections of a total pupil enrollment of about 185,000 in 1985. The greatest increase

is scheduled at the junior and senior high schools, assuming a continuing 6-3-3 organization. While the Study did not undertake its own growth projections, an increase is likely, based on the District's fertility rate and residential expansion.

Table 4-4

Existing and Programmed District of Columbia Public School System: City-wide Summary

	Existing (SY 65-66)			Programmed (1985)	
	Number of schools	Pupil capacity	Total enrollment	Number of schools	Pupil capacity
Total system	175	128,600	143,600	174	184,500
Elementary schools	133	83,500	92,600	122	110,300
Junior high schools	25	24,300	29,100	35	42,300
Senior high schools (R)[1]	11	17,200	18,500	17	31,900
(V)[1]	6	3,600	3,400	...	.....

1/ Regular and vocational
Source: National Capital Planning Commission.

Racial Distribution. The pupil population is roughly equally divided by sex, with boys in a slight majority. The racial composition of the pupil membership is overwhelmingly Negro. At the elementary school level, 92.2 percent of all children were Negro; at the junior high level, this figure was 91.1 percent; at the senior high school, it dropped off to 86.8 percent Negro. The vocational high schools were 95.1 percent Negro. (See Table 4-5.) The phenomenon of a 90 percent Negro pupil population is discussed in greater detail in Chapter 5.

Non-Public School Population. The District of Columbia's non-public school population is not drastically out of line with national averages. In fact, unlike those in some large cities, the independent and parochial schools have apparently not served as an "escape haven" for white children. Instead, the movement has been to the suburban school system -- i.e., the white families have moved to Maryland and Virginia suburbs and sent their children to the schools of those communities. (See Table 4-6.) The Roman Catholic parochial schools are essentially for neighborhood parishes at the elementary school level but serve the larger diocesan areas at the secondary level. The Archdiocesan 1966-67 enrollment figures for its District of Columbia schools were 11,722 elementary, 6,072 secondary and 17,794 total. No racial breakdown is available for the private and parochial schools.

Pupil Nativity. Roughly three-fourths of the pupils attending regular day schools were born in the District of Columbia. Two percent of the children were born in foreign countries. The nativity of pupils as of November 1965 is shown in Table 4-7.

School Size. The District's school building program has lagged over the years. More than one-third of the buildings were 50 years old or older in May, 1966. Included in this figure for antiquated buildings were 61 elementary schools, two junior high schools and a senior high school. This study did not undertake to assess the condition of the buildings nor to determine the quality of each of the available facilities for teaching and learning. The Strayer Study (1948) did a building-by-building analysis and made specific recommendations concerning the abandonment and replacement

Table 4-5

Pupil Membership by Race and by Sex, All Levels, October 1966

School Level		Boys	Girls	Total	Percent Total
Elementary Schools					
Kindergarten and Regular Grades 1-6	W-	3,648	3,553	7,201	
	N-	42,426	41,680	84,106	
Special Education	W-	125	53	178	
	N-	1,882	883	2,765	
Total	W-	3,773	3,606	7,379	7.8
	N-	44,308	42,563	86,871	92.2
Junior High Schools					
Regular Grades 7-9	W-	1,337	1,235	2,572	
	N-	12,034	12,383	24,417	
Special Education	W-	49	35	84	
	N-	1,584	1,112	2,696	
Total	W-	1,386	1,270	2,656	8.9
	N-	13,618	13,495	27,113	91.1
Senior High Schools					
Regular Grades 10-12	W-	1,236	1,256	2,492	
	N-	7,709	8,657	16,366	
Special Education	W-	6	4	10	
	N-	33	134	167	
Total	W-	1,242	1,260	2,502	13.2
	N-	7,742	8,791	16,533	86.8
Vocational High Schools					
Total	W-	73	68	141	4.9
	N-	1,471	1,285	2,756	95.1
Americanization					
Total	W-	159	481	640	100.0
	N-	-	-	-	
Capitol Page					
Total	W-	51	-	51	96.2
	N-	2	-	2	3.8
D.C. Teachers College					
Total - Day Classes	W-	69	43	112	12.3
	N-	196	601	797	87.7
Totals					
Excluding Teachers College	W-	6,684	6,685	13,369	9.1
	N-	67,141	66,134	133,275	90.9

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Pupil Membership in the Regular Public Day Schools of the District of Columbia (Resident and Non-Resident) and Membership of D. C. Resident Pupils In Other Schools, October 1962, 1963, 1964, 1965 and 1966[a/]

School classification	Membership October 1962	October 1963	October 1964	October 1965	October 1966
D.C. public schools (residents and non-residents)					
Elementary schools	86,147	87,792	89,719	92,665	94,250
Junior high schools	28,640	29,579	29,922	29,180	29,769
Senior high schools	14,339	16,385	18,189	18,694	19,035
Vocational high schools	2,688	2,924	2,894	2,858	2,897
Americanization school	628	532	643	568	640
Capitol Page School	29	62	29	51	53
Veterans High School Center	429	444	b/	b/	b/
Teachers College	1,475	1,438	1,293	1,444	1,505
Total, D.C. public schools	134,375	139,156	142,689	145,460	148,149
Yearly Gain	5,893	4,781	3,533	2,771	2,689
D.C. non-public schools (D.C. residents only)					
Parochial schools:					
Catholic	12,266	12,240	12,138	11,796	11,220
Greek Orthodox	--	45	57	73	69
Hebrew	263	253	245	222	204
Seventh Day Adventist	321	357	420	343	382
Private Catholic Schools	1,316	1,360	1,354	1,375	1,363
Other private schools	2,686	2,453	2,527	2,436	2,452
Total, D.C. non-public schools	16,852	16,708	16,741	16,245	15,690
Yearly Gain or Loss	+402	-144	+33	-496	-555
Tutoring (D.C. residents only)	1	2	1	--	--
Department of Public Welfare (D.C. residents only)					
Children's Center, Laurel, Md.	487	522	538	570	526
Junior Village School	297	259	377	241	204
Total, Department of Public Welfare	784	781	915	811	730
Other out-of town schools (D.C. residents only)	1,470	1,653	1,569	1,767	1,680
Grand total	153,482	158,300	161,915	164,283	166,249
Yearly Gain	6,250	4,818	3,615	2,368	1,966

a/ Figures for the D.C. public schools were compiled directly from the regular membership reports submitted by each school. Figures for D.C. non-public schools, for the Department of Public Welfare, Children's Center at Laurel, Md., Junior Village School, and for other out-of-town schools were taken from "Summary of Non-public School Enrollment," prepared by the Department of School Attendance and Work Permits, Public Schools of the District of Columbia.

b/ Armstrong Adult Education Center reported with Adult Evening School Program.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Table 4-7

Nativity Of Pupils In Regular Day Schools On November 10, 1965

School	Born in the District of Columbia		Born in Other Parts of the United States		Born in foreign countries		Total membership
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	
Elementary schools[a]							
Regular grades 1-6 and kindergarten	69,790	78.3	17,650	19.8	1,680	1.9	89,120
Special education[b]	2,779	81.3	611	17.9	30	.8	3,420
Total	72,569	78.5	18,261	19.7	1,710	1.8	92,540
Junior high schools							
Regular grades 7-9	19,489	75.9	5,690	22.2	503	1.9	25,682
Special education[b]	2,551	77.2	740	22.4	14	.4	3,305
Total	22,040	76.0	6,430	22.2	517	1.8	28,987
Senior High Schools							
Regular grades 10-12	13,332	72.7	4,480	24.5	514	2.8	18,326
Special education[c]	108	73.5	33	22.4	6	4.1	147
Total	13,440	72.8	4,513	24.4	520	2.8	18,473
Vocational high schools	2,071	74.4	682	24.5	29	1.1	2,782
Americanization School	--	--	3	.5	642	99.5	645
Capitol Page School	10	22.7	34	77.3	--	--	44
D.C. Teachers College	593	76.5	146	18.8	36	4.7	775[d]
Grand total	110,723	76.8	30,069	20.8	3,454	2.4	144,246

a/ Includes laboratory and other special elementary schools as well as all regular elementary schools.
b/ Includes pupils on visiting instruction at home or in hospitals, as well as pupils in officially recognized special classes.
c/ Includes 23 orthopedically handicapped students, 14 postgraduates, 10 social adjustment students (Boys' School and Twilight Classes), 41 special project students (Girls' School) and 59 students on visiting instruction at home or in hospitals.
d/ Does not include students in Evening and Saturday Classes.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Table 4-8

Analysis of Public School Building Capacities in Relation to Pupil Membership in the District of Columbia, 1966-1967

School Level	Total Number of Schools in City	Schools Having Capacities in Excess of Membership				Schools Having Memberships in Excess of Capacity			
		Number of Schools	Combined Capacity	Combined Membership Oct.20,1966	Combined Excess of Capacity Over Membership	Number of Schools	Combined Capacity	Combined Membership Oct.20,1966	Combined Excess of Membership Over Capacity
Elementary Schools	138 a/	48	26,814	23,443	+3,371	90	59,904	70,958 b/	-11,054
Junior High Schools	27	10	11,676	10,298 c/	+1,378	17	15,995	18,967 d/	- 2,972
Senior High Schools	11	2	3,038	2,931	+ 107	9	14,116	16,361 e/	- 2,245
Vocational High Schools ..	5	1	540	483	+ 57	4	2,124	2,414	- 290
D. C. Teachers College ...	1	--	--	--	--	1	1,150	1,505	- 355
All School Levels	182 f/	61	42,068	37,155	+4,913	121	93,289	110,205	-16,916

a/Does not include Military Road School, and Lenox Annex (sub-standard building); includes six annexes--Benning, Crummell, Davis, Morgan, Powell and Stanton.
b/Includes 640 Americanization School pupils housed in Adams Elementary School.
c/Includes 35 Boys' Junior-Senior High School pupils housed in Randall Junior High School.
d/Does not include 424 grade 9 pupils from Banneker housed in Cardozo.
e/Includes 424 grade 9 pupils from Banneker housed in Cardozo.
f/Does not include Capitol Page School, Sharpe Health School, Military Road School, and Armstrong Adult Education Center; Does not include Americanization School as a separate school--see b/above.

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Table 4-9

Average Class Size by School Levels on October 20, 1966[a/]

School level	Average class size
Elementary schools	
Kindergarten	28.6[b/]
Grades 1-6	30.6
Special academic[c/]	14.2
Junior high schools	
Academic (includes Art)	30.1
Shop (includes Home Economics and Industrial Arts)	18.6
Special academic[d/]	18.1
Senior high schools	
Academic	30.6
Shop (includes Art, Home Economics, and Industrial Arts)	21.0
Vocational high schools	
Academic	28.5
Related	27.5
Shop (includes all Shops)	18.8

a/Information in this study is based on official membership reports for elementary schools and the organization cards for the secondary schools.

b/This figure represents A.M. and P.M. classes and not total number of pupils taught by individual teachers.

c/Does not include special-education pupils such as: Braille, hearing conservation, occupational, sight conservation, social adjustment, severely mentally retarded, Visiting Instruction, Girls' School, and orthopedically handicapped.

d/Does not include special-education pupils such as: Braille, hearing conservation, sight conservation, Visiting Instruction, Girls' School, orthopedically handicapped, and social adjustment.

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

of many buildings. Some of the buildings pinpointed by Strayer as requiring replacement then are still in use, although others have been replaced or are being used for instructional purposes.

The size of the pupil populations at schools varies considerably. Fillmore and Grant elementary schools had 114 and 119 pupils, respectively; Moten and Davis, 1,554 and 1,494. The junior high schools ranged in size from Jefferson with 604 to Banneker with a total registration of 1,409. Western was the smallest high school, with 1,360 pupils; Eastern the largest, with 2,562. Aside from the range in pupil populations, there was variation in the extent of over- and under-utilization during the school year 1966-67. The Office of the Statistical Analyst estimated that a total of 61 buildings had a surplus of 4,913 places over enrollment. On the other hand, 121 buildings had an excess of 16,916 pupils over capacity. At the high school level, with the exception of Roosevelt and Wilson, all senior high schools were operating at or above capacity, with McKinley perhaps the most overcrowded. (See Table 4-8.)

Class Size. In the past few years, the District has made a concerted effort to reduce class size. The average class size now approaches 30, the goal set by the Board of Education for the elementary school. The figures contained in Table 4-9 provide a somewhat more optimistic picture than is warranted. Table 4-10 indicates that almost three-fifths of the elementary school population (47,562 pupils) are enrolled in classes of more than 30 (54.0 percent of all classes). At the junior and senior high school level, the average class sizes for academic subjects are 30.1 and 30.6, respectively. Again, however, 83.8 percent of junior high pupils and 84.0 percent of the senior high pupils are enrolled in classes of more than 25 (75.0 percent and 75.6 percent of the classes, respectively.) Nor are the optimal- and over-sized classes evenly distributed throughout the system.

Table 4-10

Class Size by Number and Percent of Classes and Pupils

Size of Class	Classes		Pupils	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Elementary School				
Under 30	943	36.2	24,469	30.7
30	255	9.8	7,650	9.6
Above 30	1,407	54.0	47,562	59.7
Total	2,605[a/]	100.0	79,681[a/]	100.0
Junior High[b/]				
Under 25	1,387	21.8	26,031	13.6
25	203	3.2	5,075	2.6
Above 25	4,776	75.0	160,591	83.8
Total	6,366	100.0	191,697	100.0
Senior High[b/]				
Under 25	692	20.7	13,282	13.0
25	124	3.7	3,100	3.0
Above 25	2,524	75.6	85,772	84.0
Total	3,340	100.0	102,154	100.0

a/Does not include classes and pupils in which both junior primary pupils and kindergarten pupils are combined, where the kindergarten membership is greater than the junior primary membership.

b/Art, Business Education, English, Health and Physical Education, Languages, Mathematics, Music, Science, and Social Studies included.
Information taken from official organization cards on October 20, 1966.

NOTE 1: Information concerning Instrumental Music (small groups which are units of the band or orchestra), special-education classes, and small remedial reading classes are omitted from this table.

NOTE 2: Junior and senior high tables show the number of classes and pupils in the academic subjects taught. The number of pupils under Col. 4 may appear to be large because many pupils at this level are permitted to take six classes per day.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Pupil Population Educational Characteristics

The U. S. Office of Education survey, Equality of Educational Opportunity ("Coleman Report") is notable for two of its major conclusions: (1) the average achievement scores of Negroes in every section of the country were significantly lower than those of whites and (2) the major variables affecting school achievement appeared to be socio-economic status, the backgrounds and attitudes of peers and the child's sense that he can (or cannot) control his environment. These findings for the nation as a whole are especially significant in the Washington context. A futile attempt was made to secure the U.S.O.E. Survey data for District of Columbia pupils, teachers and schools for comparison with Coleman's national sample.

The Coleman Report pointed out that "the great majority of American children attend schools that are largely segregated -- that is, where almost all of their fellow students are of the same racial background as they are."[1/] Of all minority groups, Negroes are the most segregated by far. Some other findings:

-- More than 65 percent of all Negro pupils in the first grade attend schools that are between 90 and 100 percent Negro.

-- 87 percent at grade 1, and 66 percent at grade 12, attend schools that are 50 percent or more Negro.

-- For the Nation as a whole, the average Negro elementary pupil attends a school in which 65 percent of the teachers are Negro.

-- On a nationwide basis, in cases where the races of pupils and teachers are not matched, the trend is all in one direction: white teachers teach Negro children but Negro teachers seldom teach white children; just as, in the schools, integration consists primarily of a minority of Negro pupils in predominantly white schools, but never of a few whites in largely Negro schools.[2/]

Since the school system as a whole is more than 90 percent Negro, it is not surprising that 109 elementary schools, 22 junior high schools and 8 senior high schools have pupil populations which are more than 85 percent Negro. Most of these schools are, in fact, 100 percent Negro. With three-fourths of the total professional staff Negro, 90 elementary schools, 6 junior high schools and 2 senior high schools have teaching staffs which are more than 85 percent Negro.

Half of the District's families earn more than $6,000 a year, but an estimated two-thirds of the elementary school children live in neighborhoods where the median family income is considerably less; almost 20 percent of the families report incomes below $4,000. Over 13 percent of the children reside in neighborhoods where the median family income is $3,000 or less. Almost four-fifths of the children live in neighborhoods where the majority of adults have not completed high school, and approximately a quarter reside in areas where most adults have not had even one year of high school. In identification of the population which qualified as "disadvantaged" under Title I of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, about 25,000 pupils met the criteria.

1/ Coleman, James S. et al. Equality of Educational Opportunity. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966. p. 3.

2/ Ibid.

There is no reason to believe that the Negro and the disadvantaged populations of Washington (and there is a strong but by no means perfect correlation between race and socioeconomic status) are exempt from all those influences that are operative elsewhere in the United States, particularly in the urban centers. In fact, the data indicate that the patterns follow those found in the rest of the nation.

Variations Among Pupils, Teachers and Buildings. Schools vary in a number of ways--characteristics and performance of pupils and teaching staffs, quality and age of buildings, pupil-teacher ratios and crowdedness, for instance. One task force collected data on all of the District's elementary schools except Military Road, a special school for the handicapped; Woodridge, for which some data were missing; and annexes which were combined with nearby parent schools. Thirty-two items of information were compiled for each of the 132 elementary schools--four describing the pupils and their reading achievement, 20 items describing teacher characteristics, and 8 items the condition and utilization of the building facilities. These 32 descriptive variables are listed in Appendix C.

A description consisting of the 32 variables was prepared for each school. For example, a partial description of Sumner Elementary School indicates that 90 percent of the pupils are Negro; there were 28 pupils per teacher; about two-thirds of the teachers were married and one third had school-age children of their own; the school was one of the oldest in the system (built 1871); only two-thirds of its capacity was being utilized; the pupils came from homes where the median income was under $5,000; the sixth graders, as a group, were not reading at grade level.

An intercorrelation matrix (i.e., correlations between each of the 32 variables and the others, 32 x 32) was prepared. Some 61 correlations were in excess of $\pm$ .40. These are contained in Appendix C. Some relationships between variables are obvious: for example, one would expect a perfectly negative correlation between the percent of permanent teachers and the percent of temporary teachers (r= -.99) since the categories are mutually exclusive. The second highest correlation in the matrix, however, occurred with two variables which are not intrinsically exclusive but, as Coleman also found, tend to relate as if they were: the percent of white pupils and the percent of Negro teachers (r= -.89). The higher the proportion of white pupils, the lower the percent of Negro teachers on the staff.

All correlations from this kind of matrix must be interpreted with extreme caution. Although many variables are highly correlated, they do not prove the existence of any cause and effect relationships, but only that two items are associated--possibly with two, five or fifteen other variables. For instance, some correlations are found between the percent of Negro teachers and other variables; correlations are found between the percent of temporary teachers and some of these same variables. We were unable to undertake the kind of analysis which would indicate how much of the variation is accounted for by race of teacher, by licensing status, or by other factors. High correlations are often misinterpreted as being explanatory rather than simply indicating an association.

With these cautions, some of the syndromes of relationships are presented.

-- The percent of white pupils in a school is positively correlated with family incomes (r= .81), sixth grade reading scores (r= .81), parents' years of education (r= .62), the proportion of teachers whose own parents were in higher income brackets (r= .42) and the amount of space per pupil (r= .40). The percent of Negro teachers on the staff correlates negatively with each of these variables (r= -.79, -.76, -.62, -.41 and -.30, respectively).

-- The median sixth grade reading score is positively correlated with median income of pupils' families (r= .79) and median years of parents' education (r= .63) but negatively correlated with the percent of teachers under 40 years of age (r= -.43).

-- Pupil-teacher ratios correlate negatively with the capacity-enrollment ratios, (r= -.73) but positively with the number of classrooms in the building (r=.45). The more recent the building addition, the less space per pupil (r= -.40).

-- Percent of teachers raised in or near the District correlates positively with the percent of permanent teachers (r= .57), and with the median years of experience in the District schools (r= .45). Temporary teachers, on the other hand, are less likely to have been raised in or near the District (r= -.58). The higher the percentage of temporary teachers on the staff, the lower the median years of experience in the District system (r= -.66) and the median total years of teaching experience (r= -.59).

Selected Data on 47 Schools. In connection with a study of teacher attitudes and backgrounds, a sample of schools was selected for more intense study. (See Appendix for a summary of findings.) A 20 percent sample of the larger elementary schools (those with more than 10 teachers), a 40 percent sample of the junior high schools and all senior high schools comprised the group chosen for further analysis. The elementary schools were stratified on the basis of median family income of the schools' neighborhood, with a 20 percent sample chosen from each $1,000-income stratum.

Table 4-11A

Number of Pupils and Teachers, Percent of Pupils and Teachers Negro, Median Scores and Percentiles on Eleventh Grade SCAT, STEP Reading and STEP Mathematics (October 1966) for 11 Senior High Schools

School	Number of Pupils	% Pupils Negro	Number of Teachers	% Teachers Negro	SCAT TOTAL Median Scores	SCAT TOTAL %iles	STEP Reading Median Scores	STEP Reading %iles	STEP Math. Median Scores	STEP Math. %iles
Anacostia	1540	84.1	72	38.4	277.7	28	288.0	30	266.0	19
Ballou	1428	85.2	69	41.1	278.3	30	287.9	30	264.1	11
Cardozo	1788	99.8	79	98.6	270.5	14	278.9	13	257.7	6
Coolidge	1633	92.4	74	29.1	281.5	39	291.0	44	267.8	17
Dunbar	1480	99.7	72	72.5	268.3	11	277.8	8	257.7	6
Eastern	2062	99.7	122	66.1	274.9	21	280.4	14	258.4	9
McKinley	2231	99.7	99	60.0	279.9	35	289.3	37	264.5	11
Roosevelt	1450	99.7	70	62.3	277.8	34	286.1	30	262.1	10
Spingarn	1654	100.0	83	96.7	272.8	17	283.6	22	258.5	8
Western	1360	59.1	63	33.9	283.4	43	293.6	47	271.7	42
Wilson	1398	7.3	69	4.7	300.2	87	306.2	881	285.5	98

SCAT-- School and College Ability Tests; STEP-- Sequential Tests of Educational Progress. Percentiles are based on School Mean Norms for Fall Testing.

Sources: Office of the Statistical Analyst and Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation, District Schools.

Table 4-12A

Percentages of Five Sample Washington Groups Who Scored At or Above National Percentiles on STEP Reading Tests, Fall 1966

National Percentiles	Fourth Grade (N=12135)	Sixth Grade (N=10752)	Ninth Grade General Track (N=7802)	Eleventh Grade Regular Track (N=5421)	Eleventh Grade Voc. High Sch. (N=680)
90+	03	03	03	05	01
75+	16	14	15	18	03
50+	40	39	36	44	21
25+	73	82	68	71	53
10+	88	96	89	90	81

Table 4-12B

Percentages of Five Sample Washington Groups Who Scored At or Above National Percentiles on STEP Mathematics Tests, Fall 1966

National Percentiles	Fourth Grade (N=12138)	Sixth Grade (N=10758)	Ninth Grade General Track (N=7814)	Eleventh Grade Regular Track (N=5426)	Eleventh Grade Voc. High Sch. (N=680)
90+	02	02	03	03	00
75+	09	11	13	13	01
50+	35	31	36	40	11
25+	56	66	59	56	36
10+	80	88	84	79	69

Table 4-12C

Percentages of Five Sample Washington Groups Who Scored At or Above National Percentiles on SCAT Total, Fall 1966

National Percentiles	Fourth Grade (N=11776)	Sixth Grade (N=10711)	Ninth Grade General Track (N=7834)	Eleventh Grade Regular Track (N=5367)	Eleventh Grade Voc. High Sch. (N=680)
90+	03	02	03	04	-01
70+	14	09	12	16	01
50+	44	30	24	28	11
25+	66	65	50	51	41
10+	94	92	75	77	77

Source: Study Staff from Group Measurement Division data, District of Columbia Schools.

Data on 47 schools -- 11 senior high schools, 11 junior high schools and 25 elementary schools -- are presented in Tables 4-11A, 4-11B and 4-11C below. These include the number of pupils and the percent of pupils who are Negro; the number of teachers and the percent of teachers who are Negro; the median scores on School and College Ability Tests (SCAT), and on Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (STEP): Reading and Mathematics. For the elementary schools, which are neighborhood-based, three additional items are included -- median income for the neighborhood in which the school is located, median years of schooling for that neighborhood and the "Impact Aid Ranking" as determined by the school system. The Impact Aid Formula includes [illegible]

At the senior high level, five schools had pupil populations which are 100 percent Negro or almost so. The faculties of these five schools ranged from 60.0 percent to 86.7 percent Negro. On the SCAT and STEP scores, Wilson and Western ranked consistently first and second. At the junior high level, eight of the eleven schools had 98 percent or higher Negro pupil populations. The teaching staffs in these eight schools ranged from 79.2 percent to 90.9 percent Negro. On SCAT and STEP, Deal and Gordon junior high schools ranked consistently first and second. Of the elementary school sample, 15 of the 25 schools had pupil populations which were at least 98 percent Negro (five are 100 percent Negro). Two of the elementary schools had all Negro staffs; the other 13 teaching staffs ranged from 80.0 to 97.1 percent Negro.

Achievement Test Scores. When interpreted with caution, standardized achievement tests provide one indication of pupil academic performance. Standardization has not been done for city populations but usually includes a national sample of urban, suburban and rural children. For this reason many test producers suggest that local norms be prepared and that analyses be made using those standards.

For the 47 sample schools, the mean achievement scores tend to follow a socioeconomic and racial pattern. This, of course, is not uncommon. Even within that pattern, however, there are some schools that do better and other not as well, so that the usual relationships between achievement, socioeconomic status and race are not always found. The mean achievement scores for the white children are substantially higher than those for Negro children at all grade levels, and this gap tends to widen from the early to the later grades. The mean scores of Negro children in the District are characteristically below the national average, just as they were in Coleman's findings. The average achievement scores of children attending "integrated" schools are consistently in between the average for the white-segregated and Negro-segregated schools. However, the "integrated" schools tend to have children (Negro and white) of higher socioeconomic status. Generally, as the income levels of Negro and white families come closer, racial differences in the pupils' academic performance tended to contract. Negro children from middle-income homes, in those few instances where such analyses could be made, scored about at the national norms on most tests and exceeded them on several.

Tables 4-12A, 4-12B and 4-12C give the percentages of five sample groups who score at or above specific national percentiles. For example, in Table 4-12A, STEP Reading

test data are presented for 12,175 fourth graders who took the test in Fall 1966. Only three percent scored above the 90th percentile (10 percent expected by definition); 16 percent scored at/above the 75th percentile (25 percent by definition); 40 percent scored at/above the median (50 percent by definition); 73 percent scored at/above lowest quartile (75 percent by definition); and 88 percent scored at/above the 10th percentile (90 percent by definition). Of the 36,719 pupils in these sample groups (no Honors or Special Academic pupils are included in junior high population; no Honors, Special Academic or General Students in high school), only 14,368 or 39 percent scored at/above the 50th percentile.

The achievement picture is somewhat poorer on the STEP Mathematics tests. Only one-third or 12,159 of the 36,816 pupils scored at/above the median (50th percentile). Achievement on both tests was particularly low in the vocational high schools. The performance on the test of scholastic ability (SCAT Total) approximated that of the group on mathematics -- only a third of 11,853 of the 36,368 pupils scored at/above the 50th percentile.

Howard University reported performance results of District's high school applicants for admission on four standardized tests in September 1965. Only students graduating in the top half of their senior class are eligible to apply for admission to Howard. On the Cooperative Test of English and the Cooperative Test of Reading, only 23 percent of the students taking the former and 21 percent of the latter equalled or exceeded the national medians on SCAT, 83 percent fell below the national median and 88 percent were lower than the 50th percentile on the Cooperative Test of Mathematics. Considering the fact that all of the students were in the top half of their class, the prognosis for their college success is not good.

Achievement of Other Educational Goals. Results of standardized tests of reading and mathematics, while representing the "coin of the realm" for most analyses of student performance, do not provide insights into the extent to which schools are helping children attain other educational objectives. Few schools have data on self-concepts, ego-development, values, attitudes, aspirations and other "non-academic" but important aspects of individual growth. Little is known about how schools are helping youngsters learn how to live and to earn a living in a city. In its "Statement of Philosophy" almost every school system professes broad education but assessment of student growth toward these objectives is seldom undertaken.

The Coleman Study did attempt to assess self-concepts, interest in school and reading and feelings about "control of one's environment" using paper-and-pencil measures. The District Schools are now using instruments to measure non-academic development in connection with evaluation of Title I programs.

Standardized tests of reading, mathematics and other curriculum areas, properly selected and interpreted in terms of the specific pupil population, are still restricted to one aspect of scholastic achievement. Basic skills, measured by valid tests, are significant indicators of development of pupil potential. Improved techniques and procedures are needed for assessing the achievement of other, broad educational goals. In such comprehensive assessments, measurement of growth in basic skills will continue to be an integral part.

Table 4-11B

Number of Pupils and Teachers, Percent of Pupils and Teachers Negro, Median Scores and Percentiles on Ninth Grade SCAT, STEP Reading and STEP Mathematics for 11 Junior High Schools, October 1966

School	Number of Pupils	% Pupils Negro	Number of Teachers	% Teachers Negro	SCAT Total Median Scores	%iles	STEP Reading Median Scores	%iles	STEP Math. Median Scores	%iles
Browne	1296	99.8	64	83.9	267.5	25	268.0	11	256.1	11
Deal	1149	1.7	56	10.5	290.3	84	291.7	99	278.6	99
Eliot	1191	99.3	65	88.1	267.8	25	271.2	15	254.8	7
Gordon	1008	47.5	48	37.0	281.6	64	282.7	91	270.1	90
Miller	1008	100.0	52	90.9	267.9	25	271.5	15	257.7	12
Paul	1063	91.7	52	75.0	273.9	35	279.4	63	262.7	20
Randall	923	98.3	57	80.7	264.6	15	265.8	10	253.0	3
Shaw	1295	99.4	74	94.3	265.4	15	267.0	10	253.9	4
Sousa	1082	98.8	56	79.2	268.8	25	273.6	22	258.7	14
Taft	1096	98.4	55	80.8	271.1	30	272.5	22	258.8	14
Terrell	1079	99.7	67	79.7	262.3	12	265.0	9	253.0	3

SCAT-- School and College Ability Tests; STEP-- Sequential Tests of Educational Progress. Percentiles are based on School Mean Norms for Fall Testing.

Sources: Office of the Statistical Analyst and Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation, District Schools.

Table 4-11C

Number of Pupils and Teachers; Percent of Pupils and Teachers Negro; Median Scores and Percentiles on Sixth Grade SCAT, STEP Reading and STEP Mathematics; Median Family Income and Median Years of Schooling for Census Tract Area; Impact Aid Ranking, October 1966

School	Number of Pupils	% Pupils Negro	Number of Teachers	% Teacher Negro	SCAT Total Media Scores	SCAT %iles	STEP Reading Median Scores	STEP Reading %iles	STEP Math. Median Scores	STEP Math. %iles	Med. Inc. for Area	Med. Yrs. Sch. Com.	Impact Aid Ranking
Aiton	1094	90.4	34	91.9	253.0	26	253.6	42	244.0	22	$4760	10.2	31
Beers	877	95.8	28	39.3	259.0	51	258.0	71	250.0	47	7190	10.7	103
Bryan	842	98.7	30	90.0	255.3	34	253.9	42	249.0	43	4780	8.9	58
Burroughs	985	97.7	34	64.5	257.6	47	255.4	43	247.0	32	8040	12.3	113
Draper	1262	95.9	37	80.6	254.5	34	252.0	39	242.7	18	5040	11.2	38
Drew	1027	100.0	33	93.1	253.1	26	252.3	39	244.3	4	4320	10.1	25
Garfield	1030	98.9	29	93.1	254.6	34	255.9	47	244.6	26	5380	10.9	85
Janney	506	4.9	18	0.0	269.1	83	274.4	98	259.0	90	11020	13.4	121
Kenilworth	1004	99.8	35	97.1	252.8	26	252.6	41	242.5	19	3930	10.9	9
Ketcham	867	77.9	27	33.3	255.5	38	246.9	24	245.0	28	6290	10.5	87
Kingsman	803	99.7	27	100.0	254.0	34	250.7	31	243.5	21	4820	9.3	725
Maury	537	98.9	19	100.0	253.6	31	253.2	41	244.6	26	4910	8.8	535
Moten	1554	99.4	43	93.5	254.5	33	252.8	41	243.4	20	5380	10.9	80
Murch	607	3.0	22.5	4.5	269.2	83	280.0	99+	262.7	99+	11470	13.2	123
Nalle	706	100.0	26	95.8	255.6	38	258.0	55	246.6	31	5330	10.6	89
Noyes	875	98.5	29	96.6	256.1	42	257.1	49	245.7	29	6510	11.6	95
Park View	1006	99.0	36	92.3	256.2	42	255.2	43	246.1	29	4560	10.3	60
Rudolph	1129	99.3	36	85.3	255.2	36	254.3	42	245.7	29	6670	11.6	105
Scott-Mont.	663	100.0	23.5	81.8	256.0	42	254.0	42	247.0	32	3200	7.3	7
Shephard	551	64.5	17	23.5	265.6	76	270.7	88	254.6	78	13170	12.6	126
Simon	1069	84.3	31	69.7	255.7	40	253.2	41	243.9	22	5960	11.7	84
Syphax	726	100.0	27	85.7	255.2	36	252.9	41	243.3	21	2940	8.6	5
Van Ness	845	98.9	28	93.1	253.5	31	248.0	28	239.0	1	4550	8.4	125
Watkins	931	96.5	35	81.8	253.1	26	248.8	28	241.0	16	4620	8.8	32.5
Webb	1024	100.0	36	80.0	253.9	33	251.3	31	242.0	18	4850	11.0	65

SCAT-- School and College Ability Tests; STEP-- Sequential Tests of Educational Progress. Percentiles are based on School Mean Norms for Fall Testing.

Sources: Office of the Statistical Analyst and Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation, District Schools.

Graduates and Dropouts

Post-High School Education. The Department of Pupil Personnel Services estimates that about half of the senior high school graduates continue their education, full- or part-time. A summary of the follow-up survey of graduates of the Class of 1966 (completed March 1967) is contained in Table 4-13.

Table 4-13

Summary of Education, Employment and Other Post-High School Activities of 4398 Graduates, Class of 1966

	BOYS	Percent	GIRLS	Percent	TOTAL	Percent
Number of Graduates	1877	100.0	2575	100.0	4452	100.0
Number Located	1854	98.8	2544	98.8	4398	98.8
Number Not Located	23	1.2	31	1.2	54	1.2
Education - Continued 1/						
Full-Time	864	46.6	1209	47.5	2073	47.1
Part-Time	60	3.2	107	4.2	167	3.8
Total Education	924	49.8	1316	51.7	2240	50.9
Employed						
Full-Time	478	25.7	968	38.1	1446	32.9
Part-Time	21	1.2	5	.2	26	.6
Total Employed	499	26.9	973	38.3	1472	33.5
Miscellaneous						
Military Service	362	19.5	8	.3	370	8.4
Neither Emp.Nor in School	60	3.3	210	8.2	270	6.1
Personal Illness	2	.1	10	.4	12	.3
Other	7	.4	27	1.1	34	.8
Total Miscellaneous	431	23.3	255	10.0	686	15.6
TOTAL:	1854	100.0	2544	100.0	4398	100.0

1/ This figure includes graduates from the comprehensive high schools only. It is also the total number of students continuing their education in all types of schools.

Source: Division of Guidance Services, Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

The survey indicated that roughly the same percentages of boys and girls continued their education (49.8 and 51.7 percents, respectively). About half of those who continued their education did so in colleges, universities and schools located within the District. Howard University with 448 students from the Class of 1966 and D. C. Teachers College with 174, accounted for the bulk of those attending college locally. The locations and types of programs attended by the Class of 1966 are indicated in Table 4-14.

Table 4-14

Location and Types of Schools Attended by
2240 Senior High School Graduates of Class of 1966

	BOYS	Percent	GIRLS	Percent	TOTAL	Percent
Location of Schools						
Washington, D. C.	360	39.0	791	60.1	1151	51.4
Outside D. C.	564	61.0	525	39.9	1089	48.6
Total	924	100.0	1316	100.0	2240	100.0
Type of Schools						
Four-Year Colleges	739	80.0	983	74.7	1722	76.9
Nurse Training	0	-	22	1.7	22	1.0
Junior Colleges	68	7.4	82	6.2	150	6.7
Special (Art, Music Business)	68	7.4	179	13.6	247	11.0
Preparatory Schools	17	1.8	3	.2	20	.9
Post Graduate High Schools	32	3.4	47	3.6	79	3.5
Total	924	100.0	1316	100.0	2240	100.0

Source: Division of Guidance Services, Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

The senior high schools do not have the same college-going rate. Of the 1,722 who were attending four-year colleges full- or part-time, 276 or 16 percent were graduates of Wilson High School. Ballou (52) and Coolidge (61) contributed about 3 percent each. The number of graduates going to four-year colleges, junior colleges, schools of nursing and special non-degree granting schools (electronics, business and secretarial, beauty academy, etc.) for each of the 11 senior high schools is shown in Table 4-15. Wilson sends disproportionately large contingents to colleges outside the District, especially the so-called "prestige institutions." Nearly 90 percent of District

Table 4-15

Number of 1966 Graduates from Each of 11 Senior High Schools
Attending Four-Year Colleges, Junior Colleges, Nursing Schools and Special Schools

Type of Institution	Anacostia	Ballou	Cardozo	Coolidge	Dunbar	Eastern	McKinley	Roosevelt	Spingarn	Western	Wilson
Four-Year Colleges (N=1722)	104	52	111	201	61	192	253	172	164	136	276
Schools of Nursing (N=22)	1	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	1	2	1
Junior Colleges (N=150)	22	12	5	11	4	9	13	10	26	13	25
Special Schools, Non-Degree (N=247)	28	18	8	32	23	27	31	14	13	23	30

Source: Division of Guidance Services, Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

graduates who were enrolled in Honors programs matriculate in four-year colleges. The figures for the Class of 1965 (last available) for the other three tracks were: Regular, 72.7 percent; General, 15.9 percent; and Special Academic, 2.9 percent. Like most school systems, the District has no comprehensive data on the collegiate records of its graduates -- the number who complete college programs, the quality of their academic work while at college and the number who go on for professional or graduate training.

Post-High School Employment. More than 95 percent of the 1472 graduates of the Class of 1966 who reported working full- or part-time and not continuing in higher education reported working in the District of Columbia. Slightly more than half were employed by the government, either full- or part-time. The types of employment are indicated in Table 4-16.

Table 4-16

Place of Employment, Type of Employer and Types of Employment Reported by 1472 Senior High School Graduates of Class of 1966

	Boys	Percent	Girls	Percent	Total	Percent
Place of Employment						
Washington, D. C.	464	93.0	937	96.3	1401	95.2
Outside D. C.	35	7.0	36	3.7	71	4.8
Total	499	100.0	973	100.0	1472	100.0
Employed						
Government - Full-Time	245	49.1	499	51.3	744	50.5
Government - Part-Time	12	2.4	35	3.6	47	3.2
Private Industry - Full Time	228	45.7	381	39.1	609	41.4
Private Industry - Part-Time	41	2.8	58	6.0	72	4.9
Total	499	100.0	973	100.0	1472	100.0
Types of Employment						
Semi-Professional	5	1.0	10	1.0	15	1.0
Clerical	235	47.1	749	77.0	984	66.8
Selling	81	16.3	101	10.4	182	12.4
Personal Service	43	8.6	48	4.9	91	6.2
Protective Servide	20	4.0	0	-	20	1.4
Skilled Labor	29	5.8	2	.2	31	2.1
Semi-Skilled	46	9.2	6	.6	52	3.5
Unskilled	26	5.2	0	-	26	1.8
Domestic	1	.2	26	2.7	27	1.8
Other	13	2.6	31	3.2	44	3.0
Total	499	100.0	973	100.0	1472	100.0

Source: Division of Guidance Services, Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

School Dropouts. The "dropout rate" is considered one of the most fundamental signals of school failure. In effect, the student has opted out of programs and services which constitute the 12 years of schooling that lead to a diploma. The student

Table 4-17

Secondary School "Holding Power" for 1950-1967: Fall Memberships and June Graduation as Related to the Corresponding Grade 9 Enrollments in Earlier Years.1/

		Grade 10		Grade 11		Grade 12		June Graduates	
School year	Membership in grade 9	Membership	Percent of grade 9 one year earlier	Membership	Percent of grade 9 two years earlier	Membership	Percent of grade 9 three years earlier	Number Graduates	Percent of Grade 9 three years earlier
1950-51	5,739	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
1951-52	5,937	5,031	87.7	--	--	--	--	--	--
1952-53	6,079	5,119	86.2	3,909	68.1	--	--	--	--
1953-54	6,491	5,112	84.1	3,803	64.1	3,248	56.6	3,344	58.2
1954-55	7,043	5,271	81.2	3,843	63.2	3,183	53.6	3,160	53.2
1955-56	6,497	6,029	85.6	3,990	61.5	3,169	52.1	3,084	50.7
1956-57	6,436	5,604	86.4	4,314	61.2	3,156	48.6	2,901	44.7
1957-58	5,948	5,825	90.5	4,325	66.7	3,400	48.2	3,048	43.4
1958-59	5,556	5,383	90.5	4,659	72.4	3,449	53.2	3,171	48.8
1959-60	5,444	5,206	93.7	4,250	71.4	3,648	56.7	3,205	48.0
1960-61	5,954	4,938	90.7	4,149	74.6	3,505	58.9	3,144	52.8
1961-62	6,724	5,329	89.5	4,159	76.4	3,391	61.0	3,081	55.5
1962-63	7,245	6,281	93.4	4,504	75.6	3,480	63.9	3,118	57.3
1963-64	7,675	7,132	98.4	5,335	79.3	3,808	64.0	3,504	59.7
1964-65	7,982	7,589	98.9	5,871	81.0	4,571	68.0	4,204 3/	62.5
1965-66	8,305	7,723	96.8	5,993	78.1	4,807	66.3	4,623 3/	63.8
1966-67	8,266	7,795	93.9	6,236	78.1	4,824	62.9	--4/	--4/

1/ Enrollment figures at the end of first six weeks of school. Membership and percentage figures computed as follows: the 9th grade membership in 1950-51 was 5,739. If all pupils had remained in school the next year (1951-52), the membership would have been the same 5,739. For various reasons, the 10th grade membership was 5,031 or 87.7 percent of the preceding year's 9th grade total. By 12th grade, three years later (1953-54), the membership had become 3,248 or 56.6 percent of the original 5,739.

2/Includes an average of 50 pupils per year who have earned their high school diploma during the summer by completing make-up work, etc.

3/1965 includes 21 graduates from the STAY Program; 1966, 150 graduates from STAY Program.

4/Not yet available.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

may drop out for a number of reasons, many of which are not directly related to the school program, personnel or services. The youth who leaves prematurely loses not only the intrinsic gains associated with learning but also some of his competitive strength in the economic marketplace. Studies of the causes of dropouts in recent years have altered notions that a "meaningless curriculum" or "hostile teachers and principals" are sufficient reasons to account for a school system's holding power.1/ Studies also indicate that a high school diploma for a Negro or other minority-group youth is no automatic guarantee of a better job or even, under some circumstances, of any job.2/

The District's senior high school "holding power" during the 1950-1967 period is reported in Table 4-17. A little better than 60 percent of the population entering the ninth grade graduates from the senior high schools four years later. The Class of 1966 consisted of 4,623 students, including 150 graduates of the STAY (School to Aid Youth) program. This number was 63.8 percent of the 7,245 pupils who comprised the ninth grade membership in Fall 1962. As in many school systems, the sharpest incidence of withdrawal takes place in the tenth and eleventh grades. In Fall 1963, the tenth grade membership was 7,132 or 98.4 percent of the ninth grade enrollment. In Fall 1964, that number had dropped to 5,871 or 81.0 percent and by the twelfth grade, Fall 1965, the membership total was 4,807 or 66.3 percent of the ninth grade.

Whether this holding power or dropout rate is high or low compared with other large city systems (it tends to fall in the middle) is not as relevant as the fact that from this one entering class, more than 2500 youth have left school, most with no promise of employment. Such youth present the school system with a particular challenge for improving programs and services and for innovating projects which take account of the factors affecting school dropout. The District's STAY project represents one such departure for a small number of the thousands who have left school early.

Results of Special Screening of Second Graders

A pilot study of second graders in three elementary schools -- Eaton, Bancroft and Giddings -- was conducted to determine whether there were children in need of special education services who had not been so identified by the District. These results provide some additional data on a very small group of children. The small sample mandates that the results be viewed with considerable caution and that generalizations be avoided. However, they clearly suggest the need for a more comprehensive study to determine whether the disturbing findings are more generally applicable.

The three schools were selected, each representing a population from a predominantly high, middle or low-income neighborhood. A battery of tests designed to assess visual, auditory, motor, mental and language functioning was administered to the entire second grade group at each school. Complete data were available on 179 pupils -- 64 at Eaton, 56 at Bancroft and 52 at Giddings. "Failure" on a test was arbitrarily defined as one year or more below the child's chronological age (C.A.) on tests for which age norms apply. Mean developmental ages and percents of failure were computed for the total population and for each of the three schools.

1/ See, for example, Dentler, R. A. and Warshauer, M. E. Big City Dropouts, New York: Center for Urban Education, 1965.

2/ Tannenbaum, Abraham J., Dropout or Diploma. New York: Teachers College Press, 1966.

1. Visual Functioning involved screening by the Snellen Chart (for myopia), the Plus Sphere Test (for hyperopia), the Titmus Test (for near and far point eye fusion and for eye muscle balance) and the White-Phillips Test of Visual Perception. One-third of the pupils failed the Snellen test (range 33.8 to 42.5 percent). A high incidence (ranging from 41.9 to 57.6 percent) of eye muscle and fusion difficulties was found. These deviances in visual acuity and perception have obvious implications for reading instruction and scholastic achievement generally.

2. Auditory Assessment included pure tone audiometric screening, the Auditory Blending sub-test of the Gates-McKillop Diagnostic Test of Reading Abilities and a Digit Span Test. Auditory failures in hearing for pure tones averaged 16.2 percent in all three schools (range 11.0 to 21.1 percent) -- higher than the 10 percent normally expected. The pupils were tested in a typical sound-proof audiological room and some of the hearing problems may possibly be caused by common upper respiratory infections children have in winter months. On the blending of phonemes, the failure rate ranged from 3 percent at Eaton to 24 percent and 26.9 percent at Bancroft and Giddings, respectively.

3. Oral Receptive Language performance is dependent on auditory acuity and discrimination. In addition, the child's knowledge of the structure of his language is revealed in tasks required on sub-tests of the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Ability (IPAT). The children in the lowest socioeconomic level school were approximately two and a half years retarded on this test. The percent of failures ranged from 7.9 percent at Eaton to 69.2 percent at Bancroft and 84.6 percent at Giddings. On the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, the failure rate was 6.6 percent at Eaton, 60.0 percent at Bancroft and 73.0 percent at Giddings. The linguistic performance of the pupils in the sample was considerably more deviant than for a normal eight-year old population.

4. Written language was assessed by the Myklebust Picture Story Test, a test which measures productivity (total words, words per sentence and total sentences), syntax and abstractness of thought. In all three schools, the average was below age 7, the minimum age on the test norms. Of greater significance, however, was the measure of abstractness in written language -- a third of the Eaton pupils, 90.0 percent of the Gidding pupils and 75.0 percent of Giddings fell below the expected level. There was a consistent pattern in the oral and written language performance of the second graders

5. Intelligence. A non-verbal measure of intelligence was derived from the Goodenough Draw-a-Man Test. The average performance at all three schools was within the normal expectations. Average non-verbal mental ages (M.A.) were 9.4, 9.0 and 8.7 years at Eaton, Bancroft and Giddings, respectively.

6. Motor Coordination was tested by use of the Heath Rails. In gross bodily balance and integration, the percentage of "failures" was highest at Eaton (37.5 percent) than at either of the other two schools (Bancroft, 27.0 percent, and Giddings, 28.8 percent). The results suggest the presence of mixed laterality (i.e., not clearly right- or left-handed) for 44 percent of the children. Mixed laterality may be involved in reading problems.

The deviances from normal expectations on a good many of the tests in the battery suggest serious visual, auditory and perceptual problems in the small sample. The task force which conducted the pilot study concluded that there are a number of children in regular classrooms who might benefit from special education services and whose needs seem presently unrecognized. Periodic diagnosis and assessment of all children, involving a comprehensive battery of the type used, could provide a basis for early treatment

oftdisabilities when the prognosis for correction is much better. In addition, such dignoses could lead to far more appropriate educational programming.

In Conclusion

Because it is predominantly Negro with a large segment of its children coming from poverty-stricken ghetto areas, the District schools are erroneously viewed as a homogeneous group. This erroneous image hides the fact that the near-150,000 youngsters in the more than 180 schools represent the broadest spectrum of ability, achievement, interests, aspirations, attitudes and values. On some measures of academic achievement, reading and mathematics, their performance as judged by national norms is low, and follows the national pattern of socioeconomic and racial differentials.

At the secondary level, in interviews and questionnaires, students expressed feelings about their schools, their teachers and the education they are getting, which generally fell into middle position on most questions -- teachers were generally "fair"; their schools were "about as good as most"; tracking was "O.K. if you are in the upper tracks"; courses were "generally boring, but some were pretty good." Students appeared to be particularly critical about discipline in the schools, the lack of extra-curricular and sports programs, and the required cadet programs at the high schools.

Interestingly, whatever their criticisms of their schools, only a small portion indicated that they would take advantage of an opportunity to transfer to another junior or senior high school. Most of the students felt that they were given "too much homework" and not enough individual help. They were generally critical about the existing communication channels with principals and teacher. Most students felt that the honors and college preparatory track students were given favored treatment.

To a considerable extent, the population briefly described here has many of the characteristics attributed to the "disadvantaged," the "inner-city child" or any of the other euphemisms in current usage. It is a population which America's schools have not adequately served and one for which educators are just now beginning to develop more appropriate programs. The District schools must take leadership in demonstrating to the nation that to a far greater extent, the talent potential of this urban pupil population can be nurtured to the benefit of the individuals and of society generally.

Chapter 5

The District's Teachers and Professional Staff

At the beginning of the 1966-1967 school year, the District employed a total of 6,345 regular full-time teachers and professional staff (counselors, librarians, pupil-personnel workers, reading clinic teachers, research assistants, school psychologists, school social workers and speech correctionists). Of this number 1,378 (22 percent) were white and 4,967 (78 percent) Negro. Four of every five teachers were women. (See Table 5-1). At the senior high school level, the Negro-white distribution was somewhat different: 528 (61 percent) of the staff were Negro, 344 (39 percent) white. Only three out of five teachers at this level were women.

The four categories of teachers in the District are as follows:

1. A permanent teacher is one who has met all of the requirements established by law and the rules of the Board of Education, including passing scores on written examinations when necessary; who was rated as satisfactory during the required two-year probationary period and is given tenure.

2. A probationary teacher is one who has met all of the requirements established by law and the rule of the Board of Education or who has contracted with the Chief Examiner to meet those requirements, including passing scores on any prescribed written examinations, within a 24 month period. A probationary appointment automatically terminates at the end of the second year and, if all conditions are met, is followed by a permanent appointment.

3. A temporary teacher is one who has not met the requirements for the probationary appointment. The term of employment ends not later than June 30 following the appointment.

4. A substitute teacher is one appointed after meeting the requirements for a per diem substitute teacher.

Of the total professional staff (6,345), 2,838 or 44.7 percent had permanent appointments. A slightly larger number, 2,864 or 45.1 percent, were on temporary status. The remaining ten percent (643) were on probationary status. A breakdown of degrees held by teachers in the three licensing categories at the various school levels appears in Table 5-2.

The District's personnel operations are currently in a transitional stage. The whole gamut of personnel activities has been subject to vigorous criticism which

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a/ Dr. Margaret Lindsey, Dr. Charles E. Stewart and Dr. Michael D. Usdan prepared reports from which this material is drawn. The material on teachers' backgrounds and attitudes came from the Bureau of Applied Social Research report.

Table 5-1

Number and Percent of Regular Full-Time Classroom Teachers, Counselors, Librarians, Pupil Personnel Workers, Reading Clinic Teachers, Research Assistants, School Psychologists, School Social Workers, and Speech Correctionists (October 20, 1966)

School Type and Level	White Men	White Women	Negro Men	Negro Women	Total White	Total Negro	Total Men	Total Women	Total
Elementary Schools[a]	40	528	233	2,559	568(17%)	2,792(83%)	273(8%)	3,087(92%)	3,360
Junior High Schools	91	186	377	844	277(18%)	1,221(82%)	468(31%)	1,030(69%)	1,498
Senior High Schools	134	210	197	331	344(39%)	528(61%)	331(38%)	541(62%)	872
Boys' Junior-Senior High	1	-	5	1	1(14%)	6(86%)	6(86%)	1(14%)	7[b]
Twilight Classes	-	-	14	-	- (0%)	14(100%)	14(100%)	-(0%)	14
Vocational High Schools	40	20	60	70	60(32%)	130(68%)	100(53%)	90(47%)	190[b]
Adult Education, Civil Defense	-	-	-	1	- (0%)	1(100%)	- (0%)	1(100%)	1
Americanization School	0	7	-	4	7(64%)	4(36%)	- (0%)	11(100%)	11
Capitol Page School	2	4	-	-	6(100%)	- (0%)	2(33%)	4(67%)	6
Sharpe Health School, Visiting Instruction Corps and Girls' Rehabilitation Program	2	19	4	42	21(31%)	46(69%)	6(9%)	61(91%)	67
D. C. Teachers College	11	9	13	25	20(34%)	38(66%)	24(41%)	34(59%)	58
Serving All Levels	11	63	23	164	74(28%)	187(72%)	34(13%)	227(87%)	261
ALL TEACHERS, Etc.[c]	332	1,046	926	4,041	1,378(22%)	4,967(78%)	1,258(20%)	5,087(80%)	6,345[c]

a/ Includes teachers college personnel at laboratory schools.
b/ Includes one teacher in Job Corps.
c/ Figures in totals by level, and summary, rounded to nearest whole number.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Table 5-2

Degrees Held by Teachers by Licensing Status and School Level (October 20, 1966)

Level	None			Bachelors			Masters			Masters +30			Doctors			Total			GRAND TOTAL
	Perm.	Prob.	Temp.	Perm.	Prob.	Temp.	Perm.	Prob.	Temp.	Perm.	Prob.	Temp.	Perm.	Prob.	Temp.	Perm.	Prob.	Temp.	
Elementary	22	-	120	1,013	254	1,303	340	50	99	124	12	21	2	-	-	1,501	316	1,543	3,360
Junior High	3	1	17	414	171	538	181	25	53	72	10	12	1	-	-	671	207	620	1,498
Senior High	-	-	12	11	11	367	155	42	91	152	14	12	4	-	1	322	67	483	872
Boys' Jr.-Sr.High	-	-	-	-	3	3	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	3	3	7
Twilight Classes	-	-	-	1	-	12	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	12	14
Vocational High	-	-	-	30	11	54	42	5	11	29	1	7	-	-	-	101	17	72	190
Americanization	-	-	-	5	-	2	2	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	7	-	4	11
Capitol Page	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	-	6	-	-	6
Sharpe Health School, V.I.C., and Girls' Rehab. Program	-	-	-	16	4	23	9	1	3	8	1	1	1	-	-	34	6	27	67
D.C. Tchrs.Coll.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	35	-	-	17	4	1	52	4	2	58
Serving All Levels	1	-	-	55	21	72	46	1	20	37	1	5	2	-	-	141	23	97	261
Civil Defense	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1
Total	26	1	149	1,545	475	2,375	779	124	280	461	39	58	27	4	2	2,838	643	2,864	6,345

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Table 5-3

Years of Teaching Experience--District of Columbia Public School Teachers In D.C. Schools and Other School Systems (October 20, 1966).

Years	Elementary		Junior high		Senior high		Vocational high		Special schools[a]		Depart-ments		Total teachers	
	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.	No.	Pct.
Less than 1 year	178	5.6	120	8.0	63	7.2	12		5		21		399	
1-2	188	5.9	117	7.8	83		10		4		53		455	
2-3	197	6.2	125	8.4	77		10		2		25		436	
3-4	174	5.4	100	6.7	59		12		3		16		364	
4-5	167	5.2	103	6.9	58		6		2		16		352	
Total less than 5 years	904	28.2	565	37.9	340	39.0	50	26.5	16	31.4	131	39.5	2,006	32.7
5-10[b]	826	25.8	348	23.3	152	17.4	41	21.7	11	21.6	69	20.8	1,447	23.6
10-15	594	18.6	242	16.2	101	11.6	19	10.1	7	13.7	43	13.0	1,006	16.4
15-20	334	10.4	142	9.5	65	7.5	29	15.3	7	13.7	29	8.7	606	9.9
20-25	229	7.2	84	5.6	68	7.8	18	9.5	1	2.0	23	6.9	423	6.9
25-30	123	3.8	51	3.4	49	5.6	12	6.3	2	3.9	19	5.7	256	4.2
30-35	94	2.9	40	2.7	48	5.5	11	5.8	2	3.9	10	3.0	205	3.3
35-40	64	2.0	12	.8	32	3.7	5	2.7	4	7.8	6	1.8	123	2.0
40-45	31	1.0	8	.5	12	1.4	4	2.1	1	2.0	2	.6	58	.9
45-50	3	.1	1	.1	4	.5	--	--	--	--	--	--	8	.1
Total	3,202	100.0	1,493	100.0	871	100.0	189	100.0	51	100.0	332	100.0	6,138	100.0

a/Americanization School, Boys' Junior-Senior High School, Capitol Page School, Sharpe Health School, Girls' School and D.C. Teachers College are not included in this study.
b/Five to ten (5-10) means 5, 6, 7, etc. - up to, but not including 10 years.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

pressed the Board of Education to undertake a review of all personnel policies and procedures in January 1964. A series of evaluative reports, prepared by the Superintendent and the staff, pointed to the damaging effects of outmoded and obsolete personnel procedures, especially during the current teacher shortage. On May 23, 1966, after more than two years of study, the Board of Education adopted "New Policies and Procedures for Personnel Administration." When ultimately implemented, these new policies should greatly improve the entire spectrum of personnel operations in the District schools, from recruitment and selection to assignment and other functions of staffing.

Just under one-third of the total teaching staff has had less than five years of teaching experience in the District schools or in other school systems. At the junior and senior high schools, teachers with less than five years' experience constitute 37.9 and 39.0 percent respectively of the total staffs. See Table 5-3.

For the past dozen years, the rate of turnover of teachers has ranged as high as 15.2 percent. The figures for these years are found in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4

Teacher Turnover Rate, 1954-1966

Year	Percent Turnover
1954-1955	13.1
1955-1956	12.1
1956-1957	12.8
1957-1958	13.3
1958-1959	13.2
1959-1960	14.0
1960-1961	14.1
1961-1962	14.8
1962-1963	15.2
1963-1964	12.6
1964-1965	13.3
1965-1966	12.0

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

A New Teachers' Salary Act was approved by the 89th Congress in October 1966 (retroactive to July 1, 1966). This act assures teachers with a bachelor's degree a salary range of $5,840 to $10,185 in 13 service steps plus two "longevity" steps of three years each. The salary schedules for classroom teachers in the District of Columbia and in six surrounding school systems are found in Table 5-5. The District schools have a small advantage over the neighboring suburbs at the entrance level and are about average with respect to the increments and the steps to the maximum salaries. However, Washington does not compare quite as favorably with the suburbs on salaries for teachers with advanced degrees.

Table 5-5

Scheduled Salaries for Classroom Teachers, for School Systems in the Washington, D. C., Metropolitan Area, 1966-67, by Preparation Level[a/]

Preparation level	District of Columbia[b/]	MARYLAND Montgomery County	MARYLAND Prince Georges County	VIRGINIA Alexandria	VIRGINIA Arlington County	VIRGINIA Fairfax County	VIRGINIA Falls Church
Bachelor's degree							
Minimum	$5,840	$ 5,500	$ 5,600	$ 5,500	$ 5,500	$ 5,500	$ 5,500
Maximum	8,975[b/]	9,845	9,520	9,000	10,200	9,500	8,250
Number of increments	12	13	13	14	14	15	10
Average amount of increments	$ 261	$ 334	$ 302	$ 250	$ 336	$ 263	$ 275
Master's degree							
Minimum	$6,385	$ 6,050	$ 6,200	$ 6,000	$ 6,100	$ 6,050	$ 6,050
Maximum	9,520[b/]	10,890	10,120	9,500	10,800	10,300	9,680
Number of increments	12	13	13	14	14	16	12
Average amount of increments	$ 261	$ 372	$ 302	$ 250	$ 336	$ 266	$ 302
Six years of preparation							
Minimum	$6,605	$ 6,270	$ 6,800	$ 6,250	$ 6,500	$ 6,300	$ 6,600
Maximum	9,740[b/]	11,110	10,720	9,750	11,200	10,750	10,560
Number of increments	12	13	13	14	14	17	12
Average amount of increments	$ 261	$ 372	$ 302	$ 250	$ 336	$ 262	$ 330
Doctor's degree or seven years							
Minimum	$6,825	$ 6,820	$ 7,700	$ 6,500	$ 6,900	$ 6,550	...
Maximum	9,960[b/]	11,660	11,620	10,000	11,600	11,200	...
Number of increments	12	13	13	14	14	18	...
Average amount of increments	$ 261	$ 273	$ 302	$ 250	$ 336	$ 258	...

a/ Exclusive of long-service increments.

b/ The maximums possible at 19 years of service are $10,185 for the bachelor's degree, $10,730 for the master's degree, $10,960 for 6 years of preparation, and $11,170 for the doctor's degree or 7 years. The last two increments are given at 3-year intervals.

Source: National Education Association Research Division.

A Composite Portrait of the District Teachers

As part of the Study, the entire professional staff responded to a 21-page questionnaire prepared by the Bureau of Applied Social Research of Columbia University. Before the questionnaire was administered on January 16, a sample of schools was selected to provide a minimum of 600 teachers per school level. An almost 100 percent response was obtained from the 46 schools in the sample -- 25 elementary, 11 junior high, 10 senior high. Teachers' responses to a questionnaire which sought information about them as individuals, their opinions on certain current issues and their attitudes toward specific aspects of their particular schools are contained in Appendix B. What follows here is a generalized, composite portrait which emerges from the questionnaire responses.

Demographic Data. The "typical teacher" in the District schools -- both on the elementary and on the secondary school levels -- is a Negro woman. As pointed out earlier, 78 percent of all teachers are Negro and 80 percent are women. The proportion of Negroes are much higher at the elementary and junior high than at the senior high levels. While for the nation as a whole, there is a slight majority of male teachers at the secondary school level, three-fifths of the teachers in the District's high schools are women. The modal age for teachers in the sample fell between 26 and 30 years at all three school levels. A larger proportion of senior high than of elementary or junior high school teachers were over the age of 45. The national average age of elementary school teachers was 40 and that of secondary school teachers, 37. Through the District Negro teachers are somewhat younger than their white colleagues, a disproportionate number of the whites were under 25 or over 45. On the other hand, a larger proportion of Negroes than of whites were in the middle categories, between the ages of 25 and 46. On the senior high school level, white men were slightly more likely than white women to be 35 or younger and less likely to be over 45.

Geographical Antecedents. About two-fifths of the elementary school teachers in Washington grew up either in the District or within a radius of fifty miles; 27 percent of the senior high school teachers grew up in Washington or in its suburbs. When those who migrated to the District are added to the Washington-born teachers, the total shows southern and D. C. origins for three-fourths of the elementary and junior high school teachers and for 58 percent of the senior high school teachers. The majority of white teachers however, tend to come from other parts of the United States, particularly the northeast and northcentral states.

Present Residence. Three of every four elementary and junior high school teachers and two of every three senior high school teachers in the sample live in the District. Following the housing patterns of the population, 90 percent of the Negro teachers at each level reside within the District, compared to only half of the white teachers. At the elementary level, there is no difference in residential pattern between the two sexes. At the junior and senior high level, more men commute than do women.

Socioeconomic Status of Parents. On an index of socioeconomic status (parent education, father's principal occupation and income position of parents at the time the teacher graduated from high school), there is a slight positive relationship between ascribed status and grade level of present employment: teachers assigned to higher grades tend to be those who had the more favorable starting point. The "typical" teacher is a Negro of low ascribed socioeconomic status. There are few whites of low SES at any level in the system. The women who are teaching in the District come, in general, from "better" families than do the men. Thus the "typical teacher" in the elementary and junior high schools is a woman whose ascribed socioeconomic status is low; in the senior high schools, a woman whose ascribed socioeconomic status is higher.

Characteristics by Licensing Status. By and large, at each of the school levels, the age of the temporary teachers is lower than that of permanent teachers. Even at the elementary school, where one-third of the permanent teachers are 35 and under, twice as many of the temporary teachers fall at or below this age. The relationship between age and licensing status is even more marked in the secondary schools. Sketching the Washington teacher by age and by licensing status reveals that a student in senior high school is most likely to be taught by a temporary teacher who is under the age of 36.

Characteristics by Track. Since the Special Academic tracks are more likely to be found in predominantly Negro schools and Honors tracks in those few which are predominantly white, and, since white teachers are more often found in the predominantly white schools, it is not surprising that Negro teachers are more likely to be assigned to the lower tracks and white teachers to the higher tracks. Teachers with tenure are also more likely to have classes with brighter pupils than are the temporary teachers. At each of the three levels, a larger proportion of the permanent than of probationary or temporary teachers are assigned to the Regular and the Honors tracks. Although 85 percent of the teaching staff work the General and the Regular tracks, little or no relationship appears between the highest degree earned and the track taught. Even in the Special Academic Track, teachers exhibit very much the same distribution of degrees earned as does the majority of the teachers. However, the teachers of honors classes are more likely than other teachers to have a master's degree.

Salaries. Although there is a single salary schedule, the senior high school teachers report earning more than the junior or elementary school teachers. The discrepancy is due primarily to the fact of greater longevity and more teachers who hold permanent licenses at the senior high school. Few differences in income are reported between males and females. The only significant difference in the distribution of Negro and white teachers among the income categories occurs at the elementary level, where more whites than Negroes report earning over $8000. The teachers of the lower tracks usually earn less than those of the higher tracks. This, too, is a function of length of service and reflects the greater turnover of teachers in the lower tracks as well as differences in licensing status. As would be expected, teachers' incomes vary with their licensing status at every school level.

Teacher Family Income. A good portion of the married teachers, both male and female, tend to come from two-income families. At the elementary level, the family income of white teachers exceeds that of Negro teachers. On the junior high school level, the situation is reversed. In the senior high school, the total family income distribution pattern is approximately the same for Negroes and for whites. Three-fifths of the teachers of each sex have other family members contributing to their total family income.

Marital Status. The majority of teachers on each school level are married. The permanent teachers are the most likely to be married; the temporary teachers, the most likely to be single.

Values. The teachers, in the tradition of the profession, express a great desire to be helpful to students and friendly with peers; they voice interest in the subject matter of their work; but little interest, relatively, in its dollar rewards. Elementary and high school teachers see eye-to-eye on their occupational value preferences.

Teachers in the District school system share the same hierarchy of values as do teachers in the nation as a whole. Washington teachers, unlike teachers nationwide, tend to place less emphasis on both humanitarianism and sociability, on the one hand, and on the traditional status symbols (community and social standing) on the other.

They place at least as much emphasis on the impersonal, technical aspects of their job as do teachers nationally.

Supervision and pay are two job attributes which irritate a substantial proportion of teachers in Washington. Whites and Negro teachers are dissatisfied with the quality of evaluations of their job performance (supervision) and with the chance to earn enough money.

Self-Assurance. An assurance scale assessed the teacher's confidence in himself and in the probability that other people will do what is both "right" and expected -- an overall confidence in life. White teachers face life with more confidence than do Negro teachers. Nonetheless, even the elementary school Negro teachers -- those with the lowest assurance scores -- have as much assurance as do the nation's predominantly white parents of high school seniors. Permanent teachers tend to have more assurance than do either probationary or temporary teachers. Those who teach in the honors tracks have more assurance than do those in the other tracks. Female teachers have more assurance than do the male teachers.

Authoritarianism. On an "Authoritarianism Index" defined in terms of expected obedience and respect for authority indicated that teachers assigned to the lower tracks tend to have (or to develop) more authoritarianism than do those in the higher tracks.

Pupil Preferences. When asked whether they preferred to teach (1) children of professional and white collar workers or children of factory and other blue collar workers; (2) in an all white or mostly white schools or in an all Negro or mostly Negro school, the District teachers indicated less bias in favor of either white or middle class students than teachers in the nation as a whole.

When compared with the responses of teachers in the Coleman Study, the preferences of the Negro teachers in Washington do not differ widely from those reported for the Negro teachers in the Metropolitan Northeast and in the Metropolitan South. Roughly the same percent of white teachers in the District of Columbia and in the Metropolitan Northeast and South (about 20 percent) would prefer teaching "mostly children of professional and white collar workers." A much larger proportion of white than Negro teachers would prefer to teach children who are predominantly white.

Attitudes Toward Teaching. On the whole, the teachers tend more often to be dissatisfied with the tracking system. However these attitudes toward tracking differ considerably by race. A majority of white teachers at each school level is quite satisfied while a majority of Negro teachers at each level is dissatisfied. The teachers of the "Regular" and of the "Honors" tracks also tend to be less dissatisfied with the tracking system than are teachers of the lower tracks. Since Negroes are more likely to teach the lower tracks and since a disproportionate number of whites teach the higher tracks, the satisfaction responses are not surprising. A Special Academic class is seven times more likely to have a Negro than a white teacher. An Honors Class, on the other hand, is twice as likely to be taught by a white teacher as a Negro. Many more teachers are teaching the lower tracks than prefer to teach them or feel trained to teach them.

The teachers believe that the largest discrepency between actual and ideal practice, in the assignment of pupils to tracks, stems from their own lack of influence in the decision-making process. More teachers at all three levels believe that the pupils' potential scholastic level should be given more consideration in assignment than it presently is but that the pupils' behavior should be considered far less often than it now is.

Academic Standards for Students. About one teacher in five feels that high academic standards are not maintained for the bright students. On the other hand, almost half of the teachers believe that their school is failing to meet the needs of the disadvantaged youngsters. The great majority of District teachers expressed the belief that pupils in the basic track are "teachable." More than half believed that these pupils could achieve beyond sixth grade level. By and large, the teachers in the District either are convinced or half-convinced that pupils in the Special Academic group can profit a great deal from remedial courses and have the potential for becoming good citizens. In contrast, the teachers were divided on the issue of the probability of students' being "frozen" in the Special Academic curriculum. Teachers in the elementary schools were more likely to believe that commitment to a special academic group is a "life sentence", while teachers in the senior high schools tended to believe that pupils who had been placed in the special academic curriculum might be promoted out of it. The Negro teachers were more likely to believe that few youngsters moved out of the Special Academic curriculum.

The majority of the teachers were not convinced that all the students whom they themselves teach are in the suitable track. More high school teachers than elementary teachers thought that some of their students had been misplaced. At all three levels, more teachers considered the work too hard for some of their students compared with those whose students found it too easy. White teachers were more likely than Negro teachers to feel that some of their students were overwhelmed by the work. Thus, for three of the four tracks at all three levels and for both races, District teachers were much more likely to say that the school work was too hard than to say that it was too easy for their students. The Special Academic curriculum is the exception. It was the only track where the teachers were more often discomforted by the easiness of the school work than by its difficulty.

Factors Interfering With Teaching and Learning. Given a list of factors which are often considered to interfere with teaching and learning the teachers were asked to check the ones if any, which had caused problems in their own classroom. At least 50 percent of the elementary teachers checked: (1) poor home environment of the students, (2) insufficient parental interest, (3) over-sized classes, (4) time-consuming discipline problems and (5) poor training in the basic skills. These received on the junior and senior high levels, as well as another problem: excessive student absenteeism. On the senior high level, discipline was viewed as less of a problem than it was on the other two levels. In the elementary school level, both Negro and white teachers agreed on three blocks to teaching and learning: (1) poor home environment, (2) insufficient parental interest in the children's work, and (3) over-sized classes. Negro teachers were more likely than white teachers to feel hampered by time-consuming discipline, by the "low level of intelligence of their students" and by their students' poor training in basic skills. On the other hand, white teachers were more likely than Negro teachers to complain of parents' pressuring their students for good grades, of the undue amount of competition among the students and of the great range of student abilities and skills.

At the junior high school level, poor training in the basic skills was seen as serious by teachers of both races. Three out of four teachers, regardless of race, reported that their pupils were poorly trained in the basic skills. Six out of ten teachers of each race reported that excessive absences in over-sized classes were troublesome. At the senior high school level, white teachers tended to complain more of disinterested students than do the Negroes. There was overall agreement between white and Negro teachers as to what factors interfere with learning in the classroom at the senior high school level and at the elementary school.

Job Satisfactions. Whatever their complaints, the teachers in the public schools indicated by a six-to-one margin that they find their present job, "all things considered," to be satisfying rather than dissatisfying. On the junior and senior high school levels, Negro and white teachers were both more likely to have a positive than a negative attitude towards their jobs. White elementary school teachers were more likely than the Negro teachers to say that their job gave them a "good deal" of satisfaction. Teachers working with the higher track reported getting satisfaction from their jobs more than did those in the lower tracks.

Assessment of Student Satisfaction with School. Over two-thirds of the teachers in the elementary schools believed that most of their students liked school at least "quite a bit." Fewer of the teachers in the secondary schools, however, believed that their students enjoyed school. The teacher's race significantly affected his perception of how well students liked the senior high school; white teachers were less likely than Negro teachers to be non-committal about their students' sentiments: instead, they reported that their students either liked school "quite a lot" or did "not like it much." Unlike teachers of pupils in lower tracks, the men and women who teach in the higher tracks tended to believe that their pupils enjoyed school. Only one of 71 teachers of the Honors track reported a negative attitude among most students.

At all levels, more teachers were satisfied than not with the quality of student work. There was a direct relation between track level and the degree of teacher satisfaction with their students' school work. Teachers of higher tracks report far greater satisfaction than colleagues in lower tracks. On every level, the Honors teachers were gratified, while the General teachers were the most dissatisfied. In fact only within the General track were there more dissatisfied than satisfied teachers.

There was a strong relationship between the teachers' ratings of their pupils' enjoyment of school and the teachers' satisfaction with their pupils' school work. When pupils were enjoying school, in the opinion of the teachers, they were much more likely to be doing good school work than when they found school "not much fun at all."

Feeling About One's School. By and large, the Washington teachers reported that -- compared with other public schools in the United States" -- as far as giving a good education is concerned," their school was "about the same as most." White teachers at all levels were decidedly more convinced than Negro teachers that the education offered by their school was better than that in most of the nation's schools. Teachers in higher tracks shared this opinion more widely than teachers in the lower tracks.

The majority of the District teachers at all levels believed that schools should concern themselves with moral and character training, that they should not serve as employment agencies, that their main purpose was not to help a person find a better job and that non-academic subjects were just as worthy of the school's time as were foreign languages and geometry.

In Summary. The Teacher Questionnaire revealed general dissatisfaction with the tracking system as it operated at that time. It indicated that teachers think that children from poverty areas who were placed in slower groups were potentially educable. However, they agreed that the system is not educating these children as successfully as the more able pupils.

The teacher's race, his assigned school level and track he mainly taught appeared related to a number of important aspects of teaching in the District: attitudes toward the tracking system, educability of the disadvantaged, morale, satisfaction with job, satisfaction with how the students are learning, authoritarianism, feelings toward

various social groups, evaluation of school quality, educational facilities and satisfaction with supervision. The sex of the teachers, by contrast, was not related to attitudes toward any of the important aspects of teaching.

However, these relationships among race, level of school and track mainly taught resembled one pattern in other stratified social systems: individuals who are favored in one respect tend to be favored in others as well. Negro teachers were found more often in the elementary schools teaching the slower students; white teachers, more often in the high schools with the college preparatory students. In addition, most Negro teachers reported lower socioeconomic origins than whites and more frequently grew up and were educated in the south. As the Coleman Report found for the nation as a whole, both teachers and students tended to be located in schools similar in race and socioeconomic background.

In addition to characteristics such as race, socioeconomic background and occupational status, teachers bring many other predispositions to their jobs. While elementary school teachers were generally more authoritarian than secondary teachers, in some elementary schools teachers were less authoritarian on the average than teachers in selected high schools. Teachers in the secondary schools tended to be somewhat more self-assured than those in the elementary schools; yet at two elementary schools, teachers were more assured on the average than the teachers at any secondary school. The attitudes of teachers toward various social groups differed widely from one school to another.

The relationships between teachers and principals differed more in the elementary schools than they did in the high schools. High school teachers were probably insulated from their principals by the larger school structures, thereby producing a greater uniformity of response at that level. The more intimate teacher-principal relationship, found in elementary schools apparently did not usually produce positive feelings on the part of teachers. Satisfaction with the amount of experimentation in the school was more characteristic of elementary school teachers than of secondary. School climate as measured by an intra-faculty relations index varied more widely among elementary schools than among high schools. Although the average responses of most teachers were slightly favorable, individual schools varied sharply in judgments of colleague relationships.

The way in which teachers helped or hindered the progress of students might well have been influenced by their private image of the characteristics and capabilities of their students. Much has been made in recent years of student self-image and its impact on achievement in schools; perhaps equally important is the way teachers regard their pupils. Interactions between students and teachers provide many opportunities for teachers to encourage or discourage effort and self-esteem. Students may often learn to behave in conformance with the expectations of their teachers, their feelings (open or implied) or their unrealistically high or low standards. In Washington, the special concern was that students from poverty areas -- especially those placed in the lowest track -- were not truly expected to learn. Teachers believed the Special Academic pupils were educable; remedial classes could help them, most of them will become good citizens and most are able to perform above the fifth and sixth grade level, which has been viewed as a general ceiling. Though these views emerged for District teachers as a whole, teachers in at least one sample elementary school took quite an opposing position. Thus, while there were individual teachers who were pessimistic about the educability and prospects of students in Special Academic groups, these teachers tended to be clustered in certain schools.

There were some schools whose teachers rated its quality as "better than most" in

the United States, in terms of the standard of education. There were others in which teachers tended to mark the school as "not so good as most." There is high consensus among teachers in several schools that their particular school was "better than most" or "not so good as most." These were clearly "good" and "bad" schools as far as the teachers were concerned, regardless of what or how much children actually were learning in them. One might argue that teachers trapped themselves in self-fulfilling prophecies by assuming such attitudes. Yet the overriding opinion among the teachers is essentially optimistic: that children from poverty areas and those in the Special Academic curriculum were educable. Missing, according to the majority of Washington teachers,was a curriculum suited to a significant proportion of the students. Thus, teacher evaluations of the quality of education seemed to be an assessment of school offerings and practices, not of the educational potential of the children.

Proportions of Negro students and of Negro teachers in the schools were correlated at all three levels, but they were not correlated consistently with any of the other items studied. Some relationships suggested cause for both pride and concern. On the plus side, in a system which is overwhelmingly Negro, there was no consistent relationship between the proportion of Negro teachers or students in the school and the measures of school climate or school achievement. However, on the minus side, satisfaction with the tracking system continued to reveal racial overtones, as indicated by its high correlation with feelings toward whites. Also on the plus side were relationships between belief that the school is maintaining high standards for the able on the one hand, and measures of school climate, satisfaction with student performance and quality of school on the other. Discouraging was the fact that belief in the school's ability to aid the disadvantaged was not highly related to any other variable, at all levels. If one could find relationships between the belief that the school is aiding the disadvantaged, and such factors as high morale, satisfaction with the job, satisfaction with the principal or actual achievement test scores, then it might be possible to identify schools where all of these things are found for further study. Furthermore, such information could help alleviate the problem of recruitment of teachers for schools in disadvantaged areas. Few respondents believed that the less fortunate were being aided signfficantly. Job satisfaction and desirable school climate were linked with one another but not to student performance. Thus, while the administration should attempt to heighten job satisfaction in the schools, our data did not suggest that this would stimulate student output -- either as perceived by teachers or as measured by test scores.

Negro teachers tended to be located disproportionately in schools where morale was bad. Teachers criticized supervision, morale and intra-faculty relations. Judgments about more or less favorable school climates tended to be the same among members of both races at the particular school.

District Personnel: Policies and Practices

The District's personnel operations are currently in a transitional stage. During such a period, there is inevitable confusion as more dramatic and far-reaching changes are planned and implemented. The whole gamut of personnel activities in the District's schools have been subject to vigorous criticisms. Employees and external critics have criticized policies and procedures relating to recruitment, selection, certification, assignment, transfer and promotion of teachers and administrators.

The new personnel policies, the recent Teachers' Salary Act, and finally, the election of a collective bargaining agent (the Washington Federation of Teachers) -- all will undoubtedly have an impact on personnel practices of all kinds, including assignment and transfer of teachers.

The District school system is faced with a number of serious interrelated personnel problems. Foremost among these is the shortage of qualified teachers. Ninety-five percent of the teachers new to the system in 1965-1966 were certified as temporary employees. Obviously, a recruitment and selection problem of major proportions exists. True, personnel processes have been aggravated by confusing, complex and unconsolidated procedures which have dissuaded some qualified people from trying to teach in the District.

Unlike every other school system in the country, employment in the District is not separated from certification by a state department of education. Everywhere else, a state department licenses an individual to teach but this act is no assurance of a teaching position. In the District, both the certifying and employing functions are performed by the local school system. In the past, some teachers have been hired prior to certification, while others were first certified and then employed. New procedures will centralize responsibility and standardize these operations.

Another problem unique to the District schools is the dependence on Congressional action for authority to hire additional personnel. The District's budget must be approved and funds for new positions appropriated on the "Hill" before teachers can be hired. Since Congress waits until the fall to act on appropriations, the District is in a poor position to compete for the best applicants, who accept positions in the spring. It is patently absurd to expect the District to find competent teachers in the middle of an academic year. In essence, because the District cannot hire teachers legally before July 1, the system must tap a woefully drained reservoir of able staff members.

As a federal unit, the District schools are hobbled by ill-fitting procedures devised for other federal employees, such as the civil service classifications, not relevant to the school setting. Federal statutes require that new Board Orders be issued for every temporary employee at the end of each fiscal year. Since some 45 percent of the teaching staff are "temporary", new Board Orders had to be cut each year on each of these employees -- a massive clerical job for an understaffed department. Every position above a TSA -15 classification must be approved and set by the District of Columbia's Personnel Office. This requirement limits administrative flexibility in employing personnel, especially when proliferating federal programs strain the educational employment market.

Teacher Selection. Teacher selection and certification procedures must be designed to facilitate the employment of large numbers of qualified people. Prior to the adoption of the new policies, it was common practice for prospective teachers to by-pass the Personnel Department and apply directly to one of the operating departments, to be hired, to start to teach, and then to be processed and certified. Each of the departments could be involved in employing teachers; sometimes, employment preceded certification, sometimes not. Since the Personnel and Operating Departments were performing overlapping and duplicating personnel functions, teachers on the job as well as candidates, often did not know either their employment or certification status. Undoubtedly the District has lost more than a few able teachers because of the frustrations experienced in shuffling between the places of employment and certification.

The new procedures, authorizing the Personnel Department to handle all applications of prospective teachers will be processed initially in the Department of Personnel, should be implemented promptly to cut down current snags to recruitment and appointment.

The Superintendent's Report for 1965-1966 indicated that of the 1,228 new classroom teachers appointed, 1,166 (95 percent) were certified on a temporary basis. Of course,

many temporary teachers are excellent and certification often is no clue to effective performance in the classroom. The statistics indicate dramatically that the District is unable at this time to recruit and employ teachers to meet its certification standards. Realistically the District must weigh its certification standards in light of the fact that only a minute percentage of the population meets these requirements. Currently, the District's selection process amounts to hiring the "most qualified" from a pool of not-fully qualified personnel. Difficult at best, teacher recruitment and selection are hampered by the tedious, unconsolidated, bureaucratic processing of applications and the inability of recruiters to make specific job offers because of Congressional budgetary practices.

New personnel policies call for processing of all applications in the Personnel Department. Prospective teachers should now be able to ascertain much more quickly their eligibility to teach, and those who are eligible should be informed immediately of their employability pending the final check of their credentials.

The Board of Examiners. The role of the Board of Examiners is unclear. Few people recognize that the Board of Examiners actually performs the same functions as do the state department certification officials in the other states, who attest to the validity of teacher credentials and determine eligibility for various teaching licenses. This is a technical but highly important function.

Public confusion about the Board of Examiners is an outgrowth of a long history of its multi-faceted service to the District predating by many years the setting up of the Personnel Department. Some 60 years ago, the Board was created to establish standards, examine, and select on the basis of merit, lists of persons for appointment as teachers. For the first 30 years or so, the Examiners selected the best qualified candidates from the many who applied for each vacancy. This insulated the Board of Education, the Superintendent and all other administrators from political pressures, real or imagined. Until the early 1940's, the Board of Examiners was composed of TSA professionals who analyzed District license policies, evaluated credentials, proctored examinations and reviewed examination processes and rating procedures. The membership ranged from eight to twelve employees on a three-year term basis, this being added to a regular assignment. Today, the Superintendent of Schools retains the power to appoint the members of the Board of Examiners, as well as the Chief Examiner.

Recent proposals in other large cities, such as New York City, have recommended the abolition of Boards of Examiners. However, the New York proposal would transfer to the State Education Department the power to legitimize credentials. The District has no state department to verify the qualifications of prospective teachers and must continue to rely upon a body such as the Board of Examiners to fulfill this technical and critical function. The candidate's records and standards of moral character must be subjected to some system of verification.

The Board of Education should support teacher certification processes which sustain the integrity and stability traditionally associated with the Board of Examiners while introducing modernity, flexibility and imaginative response required in today's educational world. The new personnel policies move in this direction.

The new procedures are predicated upon centralized and rapid processing of applications. Initial interviews are conducted by the Chief Examiner or one of his assistants or an officer of the Personnel Department. As quickly as possible, the Examiner and Personnel Department will make a joint pre-employment rating and will inform the candidate if he meets the standards. Unless the candidate is rejected outright, operating departments will be involved early in the process and candidates will be notified of

a pending teaching position. In this process, the Board of Examiners will continue to determine whether candidates meet licensing standards and to classify them on the basis of their credentials. The operating departments would maintain the authority to decide on the specific assignment of the certified teachers. The new routine prescribes a second interview to be conducted by a different interviewer designated by the system Superintendent for the appropriate teaching level. The second interviewer will give the candidate an employment rating using the original criteria: these are academic preparation, experience, examination scores and interview rating. To distinguish the different roles and responsibilities of the Board of Examiners from those of the Personnel Department, the former should concern itself exclusively with certifying functions while the latter, together with the operating departments, should determine actual employment and assignment.

The era of "course and credit counting" for teacher certification is rapidly vanishing throughout the country. Instead, the "approved program" approach is now gaining wide acceptance. The District of Columbia should be preparing for this change. Under an "approved program", prospective teachers are certified on the basis of having completed a regionally or nationally accredited program and not on the basis of specific sequences or allocations of courses. The Personnel Department is currently striving to establish reciprocal teacher certification agreements with the member states of the Northeast Compact. It seems logical to expect growing numbers of the District teachers to be certified on the basis of having graduated from institutions approved either by the National Council of Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) or by regional accreditation boards. The Personnel Department should enable the District to certify larger numbers of teachers on the basis of approved programs. This will require a staff equipped to evaluate college programs and related experiences.

The present Board procedures tend to perpetuate the confusion concerning the role of the Board of Examiners. It is, therefore, recommended that a Board of Examiners be set up with authority to issue certificates or licenses of eligibility only. There should also be explicit separation of the <u>certification</u> and <u>employment</u> functions.

<u>Expediting Teacher Certification</u>. The District must strive to achieve the flexibility of its suburban competitors. A suburban administrator, impressed with a prospective teacher, is usually free to offer a position to that candidate. The job offer is not deferred until the final check of credentials is made; rather, the individual is hired with the understanding that validating information about his certification status will arrive soon. In the District, where the converse is true, likely prospects are lost because job offers follow the credentials check. Add to this the time-consuming oral and written examinations (omitted in suburban school systems) and it is plain why teacher recruitment is a problem. Finally, the image of the District as an "inner-city school system" coupled with outmoded procedure, seriously hobbles recruitment.

<u>Upgrading Teacher Certification Status</u>. The new personnel policies contain significant alterations in certification procedures designed specifically to reduce the number of temporary teachers. Most temporary teachers under provisions of the new Teacher Salary Act (passed in fall 1966) are compelled to qualify as probationary employees within a certain number of years: those with three years' experience or less have a maximum of five years in which to qualify and those with three to ten years, a maximum of seven years. Temporary employees with ten or more years may be continued as temporary teachers, contingent upon satisfactory service. In all instances, a permanent position occupied by a temporary teacher must be awarded to the candidate who is fully qualified and selected for probationary appointment. The Salary Act provides financial inducements for teachers to upgrade their certification status.

An analysis of the reasons for non-certification of the 2,116 temporary teachers as of September 10, 1964 is contained in Table 5-6 below. An individual may take the National Teacher Exam (NTE), fail it and not have the score reported. The bulk of the temporary teachers are blocked from probationary or permanent status on the basis of either having failed or not having reported a passing score on the NTE or not having met certain collegiate course work requirements. The Chief Examiner may waive any or all written examinations for holders of master's or doctoral degrees appropriate to the specific license and may grant special credit on the written examination to teachers with three or more years of successful teaching in the District schools, as specified from time to time by the Board of Education. Thus, the NTE, one of the major blocks to probationary or permanent status, can be circumvented.

Table 5-6

Reasons for Non-Certification of 2,116 Temporary Teachers, September 1964

	Elementary	Secondary	Total 1/
Did not meet college degree requirement -- Bachelor's degree for some, master's for others	193	272	465
Did not meet all of the specific college courses for the particular position	877	492	1,369
Were 50 years or older; upper age limit for all except certain categories	181	52	233
Took National Teacher Examination and failed	302	164	466
No National Teacher Examination score reported	942	598	1,540
Were not U.S.A. citizens	8	5	13
Did not pass the physical examination	6	4	10
Did not pass the oral examination	9	1	10

1/ Though any one reason may bar certification as a probationary or permanent teacher, many teachers had multiple reasons for not qualifying. Thus, the total exceeds 2,116.

Source: Office of the Superintendent of Schools, District of Columbia.

The public should understand that administrative processes facilitating and forcing the transfer and status of hundreds of teachers from temporary to probationary status does not guarantee qualitative improvement in the teaching staff, especially when one of the major impediments to such status has been the requirements of the National Teacher Examination.

The term "temporary" is quite misleading to the general public. There are large numbers of temporary teachers who have been serving satisfactorily for many years. In October 1965, some 19 percent (499) of the total 2,636 temporary teachers had served for more than five years. A report submitted several years ago proposed changing the terminology to provisional, probationary and tenure, a more common designation found throughout the United States. (The temporary classification is essentially a civil service designation.)

As has been brought out in the press and other news media, the term temporary connotes a lack of professional status and inferior performance. The District faces a pervasive problem that confronts American education generally: the dubious relationship between paper requirements, examinations and completed courses, to teaching proficiency and performance. The Board of Education's efforts to upgrade standards by compelling teachers to improve their certification status may, in fact, drive some temporary teachers of demonstrated competence out of District schools. This is the dilemma faced at a time of a shortage of teacher supply. The inducements for upgrading licensing status for teachers are essentially financial. Aside from the better salary structure, there are additional benefits such as federal group life insurance, sick leave provisions and similar fringe benefits.

The problem of having disproportionate numbers of temporary teachers is most acute among the ranks of the newest staff members who with rare exceptions have been unable to meet the requirements for probationary status. This fact -- as noted above, 95 percent of the new teachers hired in 1965-1966 were temporary -- clearly indicates that the District is not acquiring the best qualified young teachers. It is quite clear that the great majority of highly qualified teachers who could be classified as probationary in the District, are gravitating to more attractive teaching positions in suburbia for reasons suggested earlier. The selection of teachers, including upgrading of their status, must be viewed as part of the larger problem of recruitment and retention.

The National Teacher Examination. The pros and cons of the NTE have been debated for many years. Supporters contend that it provides a common denominator of uniform assessment standards for gauging graduates of various and differing institutions of higher learning. Opponents maintain that the NTE has no relevance to an individual's teaching ability in the classroom and acts simply as a deterrent to recruitment. The Common Test segment evaluates a person's general intellectual background. The Teaching Area Test purports to assess a person's knowledge of subject matter and professional methodology more directly related to classroom responsibility. Critics argue that the NTE common examination is simply a test of general intelligence and discriminates against teachers who have been successful for years but cannot upgrade their certification status because of inability to pass this "irrelevant examination." They argue that successful classroom performance is a more valid indicator of teaching ability than any written examination. The NTE Common Examination is weighted as 20 percent of the total score. The written test scores carry 40 percent of the total in the process of determining final scores and ranks.

There was a time when the examinations were, in fact, competitive but this has hardly been the case for a good number of years. Scores of 550 in both the Common Exam and the Teaching Area portion are required for permanent certification. Critics maintain that individuals refuse to apply for positions in the District because of their antipathy toward the examination, the lack of recognition of prior teaching experience and the need for taking a written examination at one's own expense.

Even defenders of the NTE admit that its reliability as predictor of teaching

success is questionable. However, they argue that retention is essential to maintain standards in the District, which draws graduates from institutions with an enormous range in quality of teacher training. They note that the minimal score, of 550, places the successful individual just above the lower third of all those who take the test in the nation. Adherents of the NTE argue that a person who lacks the intellectual ability to score even in the upper two-thirds of all those taking the NTE ought not be teaching in the District schools.

The controversy over the NTE has been tied to its use in some states for purposes of racial-economic manipulation. Some Negro teachers have viewed it as preventing them from achieving professional and financial advancement.

It is now possible, as has been pointed out, to by-pass the NTE by earning a master's degree. Weighing the pros and cons of the issue against the background of the qualified applicants, we recommend that the National Teacher Examination be utilized only in an advisory way: NTE scores should be incorporated as one component of a teacher's profile. Along with evaluations of classroom performance and college grades, NTE results should constitute a part -- but not the prime item -- of the teacher's composite record, to aid in judging qualifications. If a teacher has successfully completed five years of classroom teaching and other data support his competence, then the examination requirement might be waived.

This problem is compounded by the current debate regarding the optimum and appropriate qualifications of teachers of the disadvantaged. Few colleges and universities have programs specifically designed to prepare teachers for working in inner-city schools. Many of those who do have programs are not convinced of their validity.

The large number of temporary teachers for whom there is no NTE score may indicate fear of taking the examination rather than actual failure. However, there is no way of knowing. In April 1965, at the urging of the administration, 343 teachers did take the NTE. Of this number, only 67 or fewer than 20 percent, scored 550 or above the 33rd percentile. It is therefore recommended that the NTE be dropped as the basis for certification and retained only as an advisory with respect to the licensing, if it is kept at all.

Board Orders. The Board Orders are the means through which members of the District Board of Education officially ratify personnel actions. One of the weaknesses of personnel operations in the District has been the needless and duplicative decentralization of responsibility for writing Board Orders. Instead of one central origin Board Orders have issued from as many as eight different offices with different procedures. Under the new policies, Board Orders and personnel files will be centrally prepared and maintained in the Department of Personnel.

Some of the duplication and the great clerical load should be eliminated with the initiation of a computer-based system for preparing Board Orders. The data processing system proposed by SDC should introduce new efficiency.

The Role of the Personnel Department under the New Data Processing System: Personnel information should be centralized in the Department of Personnel, to relieve operating departments of many burdens and at the same time speed processing considerably.

The Personnel Department, if it is to perform new responsibilities with efficiency and vigor, must receive more generous allocations to enlarge its professional and cleri-

cal staff. Shortage of staff is acute in the Personnel Department. Until a few years ago, the Department had only a handful of clerks. It was this shortage of staff assistants that moved other departments to perform for themselves personnel functions, such as preparing and typing their own Board Orders, with resultant confusion. In the staffing of schools, the Personnel Department is indispensible; however, a manpower shortage at this point can add to an already unfavorable recruiting situation.

The new data processing program will provide improved personnel services of many kinds. Aside from automating the writing of Board Orders and speeding payroll preparation, the data bank will yield quantities of personnel information quickly and efficiently. Aside from the clerical and administrative operations to be performed by the data system, techniques and procedures for continual study of critical personnel functions should be developed.

Assignment of Instructional Personnel. Beyond certification, the responsibility for assigning teachers remains with the operating departments. Having ascertained their vacancies, departments requisition professional staff members through the Personnel Department. Final assignment to a particular school devolves upon the Assistant Superintendent in charge of an operating department. The new Board procedures involve operating departments in evaluation through designated representatives who interview candidates and join the Personnel Department in selecting professional staff. By distinguishing clearly between certification, employment and assignment functions, some of the confusion will be eliminated.

The role and involvement of the principal varies in the process of teacher assignment and selection. Some principals simply indicate their needs to the central office and hope for the best. Others apparently recruit individuals aggressively, and, serve as their own personnel officers, still within the rules of the personnel operations. There is a good case to be made for engaging principals in the selection of personnel, since they are sensitive to the on-job qualifications for specific positions in their own buildings.

Whatever the causes of the present situation, the increasingly non-white staff teaches in schools where most of the pupils are also non-white. Where the teaching staff is white, so too are the pupils. This is a situation not unique to the District of Columbia, as has been pointed out in the Coleman Report. Few would argue against the desirability of an integrated staff. However, where the staffs of the District's elementary and junior high schools show a racial imbalance of 80:20, little is likely to be accomplished by mandatory transfer of present white staff members. From the staff angle, teachers dissatisfied with the mandatory transfer (because of outright prejudice or lack of confidence in one's ability to teach disadvantaged students) could readily leave the District, as has the white parent. Unfortunately, no evidence exists to suggest that a white teacher who has worked well with highly motivated white youngsters can transfer her skills to youngsters from widely different socio-economic and racial backgrounds. The District should strive for better racial balance of staffs in all schools for all children -- Negro and white, poor and wealthy. This condition is likely to be achieved through better tactics of recruitment and staffing rather than through mass reassignment of the few white teachers left in the District system. The District must indeed be more color-conscious in its assignment of personnel to vacancies: white teachers in predominantly Negro schools and Negro teachers for predominantly white schools.

If the District determines to mount some of the programs proposed in this report and to launch these successfully enough to build a nation-wide reputation for innovation and pioneering on the urban frontier then it will attract and retain teachers of good

quality who are committed to urban education. Since presumably these projects and programs will be found throughout the city, judicious assignment of new teachers can forge the better balance.

The implementation of the recommendation for Staff Development Centers which follows will involve institutions of higher education in recruiting more white teachers into the system as a deliberate means of reducing racial isolation of staffs. While it is presently not possible to develop better racial balance of the pupil population, prospects for improved racial balance of the staffs is possible if the District becomes a place where exciting things are happening for the committed teacher.

In undertaking this kind of a program, the District must realize certain risks: if the impression is given that the Negro teacher is inferior to the white and that the Negro child will achieve better academically if taught by a white teacher -- both impressions erroneous but unfortunately believed by far too many persons -- then the possibilities of upgrading quality of education in many District schools will be affected adversely.

The District should attempt to contract with the best colleges and universities in the country, not only those geographically nearby, for the kinds of development envisioned with Antioch in the Adams-Morgan Program. Other arrangements are possible which could bring into the District high quality students, young and old, as ideal recruits.

A balance needs to be struck between the central assignment of teachers on a color-conscious basis and the educational needs of the school, as the instructional leader perceives them. Teachers are not interchangeable parts built to standard specifications. Consequently, there are personal characteristics, aside from race and college training, which must be considered in assignment. It would be wise to develop and apply assessment procedures for revealing teacher attitudes and preferences as one consideration in teacher assignment.

While administrative procedures on staff assignments many seek racial balance, the acceptance or rejection of an assignment still rests with the individual teacher. There are many examples of city school systems which assign teachers where they are most needed in the inner-city schools only to find that large numbers simply refuse to accept the assignments and resign. There is always employment to be had in other nearby suburban areas. The hope of the urban school lies in creating a system with so much educational soundness and excitement that qualified persons will want to be part of "the action." By uniting the District's purposes -- educational excellence and an end to racial isolation -- with the individual teacher's goals -- recognition and optimum use of his talents as a teacher -- Washington increases its chances for building the staff and program to serve as an urban model.

Transfer Policies and Procedures

Current policies on teacher transfer are not spelled out as formal administrative directives, with one exception. In an attempt to equalize the distribution of permanent teachers, tenured teachers may not transfer into a school whose staff is already 70 percent or more permanent. The policy was aimed at maintaining some ratio of experienced to inexperienced teachers in the schools throughout the system. With 95 percent of the new teachers classified as temporary, the policy was obviously a stopgap measure.

Teachers request transfer for a variety of reasons, some stated and some implied.

Some wish to teach closer to home, some cannot get along with the principals or the staff members, some need or want a different type of educational setting, and some undoubtedly want to be in schools with a different racial balance.

Temporary teachers have neither transfer rights nor the prerogative to appeal decisions relating to transfer decisions. However, requests are granted for temporary teachers when feasible. Requests in writing are processed through the building principal, a questionable practice, or to the assistant superintendent of the particular level. Customarily, temporary and probationary teachers are not granted transfers unless they have been in a building for at least two years. At the secondary level, written transfer requests are filed by date and subject. Except in emergency cases, no action is taken until the start of the next school year. If a transfer request is denied for any reason, including the availability of vacancies at the other school, these requests must be renewed each year. Presumably, the transfers are granted in the order in which applications are received.

Since the teacher need only request transfer and not explain why, the basis for for such requests is not really known. Reasons for granting transfers include: convenience to home, health or educational training and background. Our observation is that District teachers, both Negro and white, are no different from their colleagues in cities across the nation. Their responses on our questionnaire suggest that like other teachers, they would like well-disciplined, middle-class, motivated and achieving children. They want to teach in schools close to their homes. One report to the task force indicated that, of the 50 requests from permanent teachers since 1958 to transfer to the predominantly white upper socioeconomic status Wilson High School, only two came from Negroes.

For all the recent concern with overcoming educational disadvantage in the inner city, curriculum and methods have been far more successful for the middle-class child than for his lower-class peer, <u>regardless of race</u>. The task force interviews suggest that teachers would prefer to travel further, inconvenience or not, to serve in middle-class schools rather than in lower-class schools. Instead of trying to alter such attitudes, the system must turn to the early recruitment and introduction of a corps of teachers with very different training and a forward-looking kind of commitment to education in the urban school.

The Board of Education and the administrative staff have shown themselves vulnerable to accusations of discriminatory assignment and transfer policies. Partly, this reflects the obscurity of personnel policies and procedures on teacher and officer transfer and assignment which are vague, general, are difficult to document, and consequently subject to many misinterpretations. Nowhere in the school system -- with the exception of the 70 percent Index -- can one find a clear cut policy statement relating to teacher transfer. Procedures in this very critical area seem to have evolved from custom or departmental vagaries rather than from consideration and policy decisions by the Board of Education. This disorderly approach to personnel policy must be rectified if the school system and its administrative staff are to eliminate confusion and effectively deal with charges of bias.

<u>Acute Need for a Personnel Handbook</u>. As of now, there is no single document combining and clarifying all those vital matters of employee welfare and morale labeled personnel policy. There is no single source of basic information about conditions of employment in the District's schools. The task force uncovered what important policies were about only after laborious search and effort. Requests from teachers and administrators for information on salaries and fringe benefits are seemingly buried while

answers are sought. Information concerning policies and procedures is fragmented, sometimes oral and always hard to get. Some policies are found in the Rules of the Board of Education, some in the Superintendent's Circulars, and others are "unofficially" in operation. The authorization source or legitimation for these policies is often untraceable.

The lack of clarity in pronouncing and implementing personnel policies and procedures hurts morale, since teachers and staff members must often wait weeks and even months for responses to queries, or even for advice on who makes the decisions.

The recent implementation of new personnel practices, implying changes and initial confusion, opens a timely opportunity for development of a Personnel Handbook. Such a Handbook could be of a loose-leaf style, so that inevitable changes could be made easily. It could run the gamut of personnel matters, covering appointment, assignment, transfer, promotions, retirement, leaves of absence, sick leave, suspensions, fringe benefits, and retirement.

High priority should be given to the development of such a Personnel Handbook to be distributed to each teacher in service now or at the time of entering service in the future. Such a Handbook would have obvious morale benefits but, equally important, it could provide the Board of Education and the administrative staff with a foundation for a complete and ongoing review of personnel policies and procedures. Now, such policies and practices tend to be reviewed only when there is a complaint or a crisis.

Staff Orientation. Communication problems plague the District as they do any large organization. However, serious attempts at improving the flow of information to and from individual teachers must become routine. For the past few years, the District has had an all-level four-day induction program for new teachers, as well as for those staff members who missed an orientation session. Obviously with the turnover and the number of temporary teachers employed, more than annual orientation is needed. Monthly meetings would be more appropriate in the District.

Teachers hired during the school year presently are on their own. They are told to report to a certain school; they receive no official statements relating to the system's philosophy, rules or regulations except of a handbook at the elementary level. Orientation sessions and a Personnel Handbook could help close this communications gap. We also recommend a District-wide "in-house" publication to be distributed to every employee of the school system as a broad channel of facts and identification.

Substitute Teacher Service. The provision of efficient substitute services is an important personnel function: if teachers are absent, replacements must be secured efficiently. The District badly needs a centralized substitute service.

Currently, building principals are responsible for acquiring substitutes when regular teachers are absent. These busy administrators are compelled to divert time and energy from proper responsibilities to make the numerous phone calls to locate available substitutes. Similarly, principals must also process substitute payroll sheets. The consequence in some schools is that the secretary or clerk is assigned responsibility and makes calls late at night and early in the morning, starting the search before school opens.

There are separate substitute lists for elementary and secondary schools but each school sets its own procedures and calls substitutes only from the names on an official list. The official lists are now being supplemented and updated monthly and include the specific days of the week when the prospective substitute is available. The fragmentation of responsibility for replacing absent teachers causes much duplication and waste of valuable administrative time.

The substitute operation must be centralized, streamlined and given adequate logistic support for its extensive record keeping. Ultimately, great economy in time and money could be achieved by the installation of an electronically controlled centralized calling system. The data processing procedures being developed for personnel should certainly incorporate the substitutes program. This could speed identification, location and assignment of substitutes, compile frequency data on individual substitutes, standardize payroll procedures and so forth.

In 1965-1966, with "impact aid" funds, the District Office of Vocational Rehabilitation undertook a pilot project to secure substitute teachers for ten elementary schools. Two home bound handicapped persons were employed to secure substitutes for five schools each. The procedure apparently worked well and was relatively inexpensive, compared to using regular professionals.

The Model School Division and Personnel Procedures. The Model School Division (MSD) has administrative procedures for hiring and assigning teachers which bypass some of the time-consuming selection techniques. The MSD does not seem to be as bogged down in red-tape, forms and reports as does the rest of the school. The task force's impression is that teacher morale here is higher, rapport with administrators greater, and that MSD's limited size invites closer interpersonal relationships and discussion with the administrative decision-makers. In short, the MSD personnel seem to know each other and to work out their problems more directly than the rest of the District. The schools apparently have an esprit de corps and cohesion among staff which are worth the attention of the rest of the system. Decentralized recruitment procedures in MSD recognize the principals as key recruiters for staffs for their own buildings. Though principals must still deal with the Personnel Department's licensing and certification machinery, they are more systematically involved in the ultimate selection and assignment of teachers for their own buildings.

Many teachers in Washington identify themselves and their responsibilities not in terms of an educational program but rather in relation to their grade level or subject assignment at the elementary or secondary level. In the Model School System there seems to be less of a demarcation between elementary and secondary levels; teachers and administrators display more of a team identity. Administrators have ready access to their Assistant Superintendent who meets with his entire staff periodically and knows intimately the problems confronting their schools and their community. Closer relationships emerge from open communications channels; education is more of a joint school and community concern.

The Model School Division is unique in many ways in the District organization. It has the beginnings of a decentralized operation with maximum responsibility at the building level. There appears to be considerable strength in this approach.

Salary Schedules and Fringe Benefits. Financially, the District is no longer at a competitive disadvantage with suburban Maryland and Virginia school systems since the adoption of the most recent Teachers' Salary Act. However, this alone will not attract highly qualified teachers, reluctant to serve in one of the many schools in disadvantaged areas. Incentives which have proved attractive, outweighing even salary, have been such things as reduced teaching load, the provision of teacher aides, the opportunity for specialized training, the availability of rich resources of instructional materials, and other inducements in lieu of or as supplements to salary differentials for teachers in schools located in low-income areas.

In general, life insurance coverage, health benefits and other perquisites exceed

those afforded other employees of the federal government, but, temporary teachers need 24 months' service to acquire fringe benefits. In most other school districts, new employees are immediately eligible for such benefits as hospital and medical insurance and low cost life insurance. Temporary teachers are not provided with the same sick leave provisions as are the permanent ones. Sick leave provisions for teachers generally are not very liberal and employee retirement benefits need to be reassessed.

As elsewhere, fringe benefits are of great importance to many staff members. Teacher morale is suffering needlessly because of the great uncertainty over fringe benefits and other personnel matters. There is much dissatisfaction among teachers in the District with working conditions and job climate: constant complaint about the time-consuming demands of non-teaching assignments: cafeteria, hall and playground supervision; clerical chores; attendance taking. Teachers with classes of 35 or more students, many needing individualized instruction, understandably resent the diversion of time from instructional duties to routine clerical activities.

Teacher Aide Program. The use of paraprofessionals in schools to perform many non-professional functions and help better instruction as well, is spreading across the country. The Teacher Aide Program (TAP) is a project of the Model School Division. Aside from its benefits to the child and the teacher in "freeing the teacher to teach," the Teacher Aide Program has contributed to the anti-poverty efforts by creating new opportunities for paraprofessionals. The Washington School of Psychiatry undertook the training for aides working in elementary school classrooms. Evaluations indicated rather promising results.1/ The role of the paraprofessional in various aspects of educational programs already has indicated that there is considerable potential for improved instruction.

The expansion of the aide program in the District schools is now threatened by a passage in the Teachers' Salary Act. That Act set serious restrictions on the number of teacher aides who might be employed -- not to exceed five percent of the number of classroom teachers in salary class 15, the lowest category. More significantly, the Act provides that teacher aides have a minimum qualification of at least 60 semester hours at an accredited junior college, college or university. The educational requirement is unrealistic and unnecessary, judging from the successful service of TAP personnel. The limit of five percent lowers the ceiling on the number of aides who can be recruited, trained and assigned in the District.

One of the difficulties confronting TAP is its source of funding -- Title I ESEA and Federal Impact Aid money. The development of a teacher aide program with adequate training provided, should be supported by the regular school budget. The educational requirements for such positions must be realistic and feasible. It was estimated in fall 1966 that almost one-third of the teacher aides employed at that time would face a reduction in civil service classification and salary because they lack the formal education requirements of the Salary Act. Many of these individuals have been performing outstandingly. In one key area, school-community liaison services, they outperform others with more formal education. Aside from their effectiveness, these proven employees are facing demotion for lack of formal academic requirements that they cannot realistically aspire to meet now. What should matter most is that the school system stands to lose valuable employees because of requirements divorced from job effectiveness as a teacher aide. We recommend that the Board of Education seek changes in existing legislation and sustain and enlarge the teacher aide program as an enriching and integral part of the District's educational program.

1/ See Washington School of Psychiatry, TAP the Teacher Aide Program. Washington: Washington School of Psychiatry, March 1967.

Recruitment and Development of Staff

Although the educational setting in the District has some features that are unique, it shares many problems and characteristics with other urban areas: for example, the creation of conditions which could attract and retain competent teachers for the schools. Success in dealing with this problem can yield dividends not only to the District but to other cities as well. Indeed, District school and university personnel should explore the model role they might play in devising and testing new approaches, and old ideas not yet adequately implemented, in the induction of new teachers into the school system.

Although beginning salaries and fringe benefits for certified teachers in the District are now competitive with the suburban areas surrounding it, it seems clear that other conditions also shape the teachers' decisions on applying to the District and staying there, after the year or more.

Some of the conditions that serve as deterrents to recruitment have been clearly enunciated by college and university personnel, by prospective teachers and by officials in the District schools. Briefly, these include:

Negative image of the District schools in the minds of potential teachers, parents and community.

Slow, bureaucratic procedures in processing applications.

Slow legalistic procedures and certification.

Overemphasis on written and oral examinations in the certification process.

Lack of assistance to teachers, especially to beginning teachers.

Lack of opportunity and stimulation for professional growth by teachers in the District.

Inappropriate timing of budget allocations; delay, confusion, frustration, disappointment due to pacing of decisions.

Some college students express considerable fear of going into the District for student teaching or first-year teaching assignments. They fear discipline problems; they imagine the schools as barren, dark and ill-equipped; they view the educational program as static and unstimulating. Education students rate too many District teachers as uncommitted, mechanical and unprofessional. In contrast, they view the suburban schools as bright, cheerful places where facilities are plentiful; where assistance is generous and where challenge is always present. It could be argued that the fear is unfounded, that the conceptions and perceptions regarding staff, pupils, buildings and equipment are erroneous. But, the validity of the image is not worth debating here for the simple fact is that what one believes to be true -- whether or not it is true -- influences his decisions. Telling an individual that his conceptions are erroneous will not modify them; misconceptions are more likely to be corrected as a result of first hand experience. The confusion that exists around processing applications, assigning teachers, certifying teachers tends to verify an image of bureaucratic and legalistic immobility. Hopefully, this will change with the new procedures.

Pre-Service Recruitment. Research has shown that successful student teaching experience in a particular system is one of the best forms of recruiting. For some years, the student teaching situation was poorly organized. Currently, requests from colleges and universities (except for the D. C. Teachers College) for experiences in District schools for their college students are sent to the Coordinator of the new Recruitment Office. In cooperation with the appropriate school officer, the Coordinator makes assignments for college students to observe, participate and teach. In the fall of 1966, arrangements were made for 1,482 observations; 69 placements for student teaching; 28 placements for pre-student teaching and 30, for a two hour tutoring program. The D. C. Teachers College administers its own program and places its own students.

Is this a sufficiently large program? In view of the demand for new teachers every year and the number on a temporary basis, it can be reasonably argued that the District must have a minimum of 500 to 600 student teachers in the schools all the time (800 to 1000 per year). Because a favorable student teaching experience influences a future teacher's first job decision, the District must expand and promote student recruitment programs of high quality.

Excluding the students from the D. C. Teachers College, most student teachers came from six institutions of higher education. These six institutions place approximately 1600 student teachers annually in the Washington metropolitan area. The number placed in the District is a fraction of their total placement. College and university personnel responsible for placing the student teachers cite the intolerable delays in placement, the limited supervisory help provided student teachers, the apprehension on the part of the students and their parents, and, above all, the bureaucratic delays. The new central recruitment office has been charged with coordinating programs of observation, participation and student teaching and should expedite placement.

Table 5-7 summarizes recruitment efforts over a five year period. In 1966, the Personnel Department visited 65 colleges, interviewed 382 students, received applications from 155, offered positions to 167. The number of acceptances from these efforts was an estimated total of 125 teachers.

Table 5-7

Summary of Teacher Recruitment for 1962-65

	FY 1962	FY 1963	FY 1964	FY 1965	FY 1966
Colleges visited.....	36	27	37	44	65
Students interviewed.....	298	229	140	255	382
Applications received.....	172	194	131	148	155
Offers made.....	92	92	119	127	167
Acceptances.....	24	89	117	120 1/	125 1/

1/ Estimated

Source: Office of the Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Personnel.

More prudent use of time and resources might yield more productive recruitment activities; starting with involvement of the potential teacher at the outset of his college career.

The Beginning Teacher. The plight of beginning teachers often alienates the most able of them. Too often they are assigned to "difficult schools" with large classes, a full schedule and with a negligible amount of counselling or supervision. At the point where the beginning teachers feel abandoned by their undergraduate colleges, they are expected by the employing school system to behave as mature, competent and independent professionals. Not infrequently, what assistance there is tends to be non-personal, non-individual and non-stimulating.

It has long been recognized that the best pre-service education can do no more than prepare a person to begin to teach. A novice should be placed in a setting that facilitates his success; specialized opportunity for assistance must surround him; his problems should not become traumas. The traditional sharp line between pre-service preparation of teachers and their contingent guidance during the early years is detrimental to the beginner, to the school system and to the teaching profession. To provide this kind of help, specialized abilities are called for. Not all superior classroom teachers are equipped by personality, by intellectual capacity, by interest or commitment to counsel and work with the beginning teacher. Although excellence as a teacher is a primary attribute for master teachers, it takes more than this to be successful. Similarly, not all teachers are equipped to work well in a team situation where members have differentiated functions. Though it has been recognized that special preparation is needed to work with student teachers, beginning teachers and auxiliary personnel, conditions have impeded developing an adequate program.

The District of Columbia Teachers College. This institution, a 1955 merger of two segregated institutions (Miner and Wilson Teachers Colleges), has been another department in the schools, with its President at the level of an Assistant Superintendent. The college soon will fall under the new Board of Higher Education for the District. Therefore, the task force's study of the D. C. Teachers College was somewhat restricted. The primary objective of the college is the preparation of students for teaching in elementary and secondary schools and it was looked at in terms of its contribution to the District's staff. The overall impression the District Teachers College leaves is one of poverty. The physical plant, equipment and facilities are not up to the demands of a good teacher education program in 1967. The faculty is limited in its demonstrated scholarship (only 19 percent have earned doctorates). Of the 140 faculty members, 70 percent are located in the two college-related but District operated laboratory schools. Of the 70 faculty members in the College proper, 52 are full-time teachers and 18 full or part-time administrators.

Less than adequate is the College's contribution to the District schools in the number of new teachers. In ten years, 1114 students have graduated, a mean of 111 per year with a range of from 75 to 167. Slightly over 70 percent of these graduates have accepted assignments in the District schools each year. It can be reasonably inferred that those who did not pass the examinations and yet accepted assignments were placed in the temporary category.

In all fairness, significant improvements have been made in the educational program over the past two years. The direct experience component of the program (observation, participation and student teaching) is well designed and implemented although it pays far too little attention to the special conditions of the pupils in District schools. Also, it is doubtful that students have sufficient intellectual challenge, enough opportunity to study as well as to practice teach. The curriculum offers meagre

course work in knowledge and methods in the social and behavioral sciences -- a particularly appropriate concentration for depressed urban areas. The task force found that the physical plant induced feelings of depression, frustration and inadequacy. The overall impression of the faculty is more positive -- one of dedicated, hard working people who see little hope for achieving the goals of their own aspirations and of the District needs.

It is the task force's belief that the District is well advised to abandon, as it is doing, the single-purpose teacher training institution. More will be said about this later. The recent decision to develop a four-year college, together with other opportunities for post-secondary school education indicates the President's Commission reached a similar conclusion. However, some fundamentally important questions must be answered in evolving a new design for higher education in the District.

The emerging institution must give high priority to the challenge of teacher education. We recommend that the District appoint a College Committee on Teacher Education, to take advantage of the best advice available from expert practitioners and academic scholars in the development of a new teacher education program. Its focus would be the child in the urban world.

Recruiting and Retaining a Qualified Professional Staff

Obviously, the District needs a more positive and aggressive program to alter its present negative image. Modifying the physical appearance of buildings, the equipment available, the work load of teachers and the quality of opportunity for professional development available to all teachers would eventually brighten that image. But the social milieu of the schools and their population, too, are likely to remain rather constant during the years ahead. The central task, therefore is three-fold; (1) to capitalize on the problems and conditions of teaching in the District schools by treating them as a laboratory for professional experience and growth, (2) to reward success in personal and professional terms, and (3) to interest young people to see the problems, the challenge and the rewards of teaching in the District.

To school systems, the student teaching period is crucial in the recruitment process. Certainly, it is a time for mutual sizing up. A challenging yet essentially happy and satisfying pre-service experience could well lead to employment in the District. A good pre-student teaching experience in the schools will predispose a student to request a student teaching placement here. Of recent years, the District has not attracted its necessary and proper share of pre-service students, either for observation, participation or student teaching.

Yet, as the nation's capital Washington has much to offer. Its cultural, educational and entertainment facilities are numerous and inviting. Its salary scales are not a major disadvantage. What the District lacks is a reputation as a leader in sound, innovative educational ventures, a name for expertise in dealing with the vast problems of the big city. Dedicated young men and women all over the country will want to teach in cities where they can be part of the cutting edge of a new frontier in education. They have demonstrated this by joining the Peace Corps, Vista and the National Teacher Corps. A good proportion of the young Americans today are committed to the principle of equality of opportunity and the centrality of education in realizing this principle. They understand the scope and depth of problems confronting the society in this regard. And, most important, they are activists. There is no reason to doubt -- especially with such local programs as the Cardozo Urban Teaching Project and in the Antioch-Morgan Project -- that many young people from the District and from all over the country will be attracted to teach in the District schools, once they are

convinced of the forward thrust of new programs. It is recommended that they search more intensely for long-term cooperative relationships with strong teacher training institutions, those in the Washington metropolitan area and elsewhere throughout the country.

Staff Development Centers. It is recommended that a Staff Development Center, a separate agency charged with the induction and continuing education of staff professionals and paraprofessionals be organized. It would be attached neither to the District schools nor to the colleges or universities alone. Rather, it would be responsible to both through a board of directors representing colleges and universities, the District schools, other educational groups and the community itself. The Staff Development Center would operate at a central site, as well as at numerous satellites in various schools.

Such a center would concern itself with the gradual induction of new teachers into the profession. Neither the District schools nor the colleges and universities should be working alone to induct new teachers into the city schools. The task demands commitment, financial support, personnel allocation and dedicated work from both college and school personnel.

Colleges and universities would relate to the Staff Development Center and its "induction center satellites" in a variety of ways. For example, a consortium of two or more institutions might work intensively with one induction center. A college might move a major portion of its professional education program into an induction center, participating in planning, teaching and program development. Colleges might assign one or more of its professors full-time and others part-time for research, consultation and program development. A broad effort would include: cooperative research; campus-based tutorial groups; action programs involving one or more local schools and a college; teacher training laboratories; and intensive school program development.

The District schools could relate to the Staff Development Center and its induction centers in a variety of ways as well. Designated personnel would be on full-time or part-time assignment to a particular induction center, serving as master teachers, researchers, consultants, or in specialized capacities. A consortium of schools in a geographic area or at a particular level might assume specialized functions in connection with programs. Selected programs and materials might be tested and disseminated to large groups of teachers in the District.

In addition, the Staff Development Center would be responsible for the continuing in-service education of professional staff members including teachers, supervisors, administrators and others. The Centers could develop and test new forms of in-service education using varied patterns of organization, new technology and personnel.

The responsibility for recruiting, training and inducting teacher aides and other paraprofessionals, as well as certain volunteers, could be a function of the Staff Development Center.

The Center could furnish space for allied colleges and universities not located geographically near the District. In short, this Center could become the operating model for channeling teachers and other staff personnel into the urban school system from a number of institutions of higher education. Once more or less stabilized, the Center could expand into a regional center. College and university personnel might take advantage of the opportunity for their own professional development through research and scholarly activity in an ongoing center.

Such a Center would place responsibility for continuous selection, professional preparation and gradual induction jointly on colleges, universities and the District Schools, replacing the present unsatisfactory cooperative relationships. It would fix and insure discharge of responsibility for staff education. Such a Center would provide for advancement and differentiated functions within the staff and teaching corps. It could design and widen experiences for a large group of potential professionals, administer specialized training for such important groups as cooperating teachers, team leaders, auxiliary workers, and supervisors and administrators. Finally, the staff development center would symbolize the positive image of the District schools as leaders in full-scale development of staff personnel from pre-induction to advancement.

A New Concept of Staffing. It is proposed that the district, in cooperation with selected colleges and universities, seek to staff a pilot group of schools with a corps of truly "temporary" teachers -- educated young people, willing to take on the problems and challenges of the schools for a three-year period, under conditions designed to enhance their chances for success. These conditions would include continuous and close supervision during the first years of a paid internship, a reduced teaching load, planning time, opportunity to participate in seminars and other training experiences, chances for testing and experimenting with new materials and resources. Young people committed to this kind of a challenge, strengthened by a fair measure of success, might well be recruited into the urban school system. At the end of three years, these young teachers, working with trained master teachers, could then decide whether or not to continue in the District Schools. The planned program of induction and continued training would raise their qualifications for permanent positions should they desire them. The Peace Corps, VISTA, National Teacher Corps suggest the kinds of "temporary" service proposed here.

Collective Bargaining and Negotiations. Personnel relations will certainly be certainly be affected by the April 1967 election of the Washington Federation of Teachers as the teachers' representative for collective bargaining and negotiations. The areas to be negotiated and the contractual agreement still must be resolved. However, in other parts of the nation where bargaining has taken place, new relationships between teachers and administrators and teachers and the Board of Education have had to be worked out. In the District, where teachers' salaries are set by Congressional act, bargaining will probably differ from some other school systems. It is recommended that an Office of Staff Negotiations be established for continuing attention to this aspect of personnel relations.

In Summary

It is recommended that the new personnel procedures be implemented as rapidly as possible. Recruitment, certification and employment procedures must be modernized. The District should enter into reciprocal certification agreements with other states, expediting licensing and certification and encouraging teachers to move into District schools on the basis of regional accreditation. The Board of Examiners should become the District's certifying agent, clearly separated from teacher employment.

The Personnel Department must consolidate and centralize its functions and services. It must eliminate much of the inefficient clerical bureaucracy which follows obsolete procedures and suffers from staff shortages. The procedural morass discourages teachers from making job applications.

It is recommended that the District begin its staff recruiting from the time the undergraduate student shows interest in teaching. Through a Staff Development Center and satellite induction centers (these would be joint operations involving colleges

and universities, the District Schools and other agencies), programs would be developed for training professionals and paraprofessionals. Such programs would begin at the pre-service level and continue in-service. It is recommended that the District initiate and test new programs for preparing individuals for working in the urban school.

A potential teacher source may be found among the liberal arts graduates, Peace Corps returnees, industry and government workers. Many are not now certifiable because they lack certain professional prerequisites. It is recommended that the District test new approaches to staffing its schools, recruiting and inducting such persons on a three-year appointment which could lead to a permanent assignment. Quality in teaching must not be sacrificed. New ideas must have safeguards with new teachers making a commitment to complete additional study concurrent with classroom work.

New roles are crystallizing out of the trial-and-error attempts to improve staffing in the big city schools. If the new roles -- teacher aids, school-community agents, materials assistants, for example -- are to be truly helpful to the students, people must be trained for them. The initiative for such training, the actual preparation for new educational roles, must be done by and within the school system. Such training must also be given to the professionals who are to work with the paraprofessionals.

It is recommended that an Office of Staff Negotiations be established for continuing attention to the relationships between the Board of Education, administrators, teachers and other school employees affected by collective bargaining.

Finally, it is recommended that a Personnel Handbook be prepared to itemize, clarify and periodically up-date all personnel procedures and policies. Prompt attention to implementation of the System Development Corporation proposals for data processing could facilitate some personnel operations. The data bank should be used for research and for regular evaluation of personnel procedures.

Task forces studying instruction in various subject fields almost unanimously pointed to the need for upgrading teacher competencies and for developing insights for working with the urban child. Proposals for inservice education of teachers and other professional staff members are discussed in Chapter 12.

Chapter 6

Educational Officers and School Organization

The District schools designate as "educational officers" or "school officers" a variety of non-teaching personnel -- superintendents, supervisors, directors, specialists, attendance officers, psychologists, principals, assistant principals and others. There were 468 such educational officers in October 1966, a number expanded during the school year. The total included 12 central administrative officers, 191 central supervisory officers and 265 principals and assistant principals.

Women officers numbered 281 or 60 percent and Negro officers numbered 305 or 65 percent. Of the Negro total, 183 or 60 percent are women, more than half of whom were principals. The distribution of officers by type of position, sex and race is shown in Table 6-1.

Table 6-1

Number and Percentage of Educational Officers by Position, Sex and Race (October 1966)

Type of Position	White Men	White Women	Negro Men	Negro Women	Total White	Total Negro	Total Men	Total Women	Total
General Administrative officers 1/	7	1	3	1	8 (67%)	4 (33%)	10 (83%)	2 (17%)	12
Central supervisory officers 2/	25	49	34	83	74 (39%)	117 (61%)	59 (31%)	132 (69%)	191
Principals and assistant principals 3/	33	48	85	99	81 (38%)	184 (62%)	118 (45%)	147 (55%)	265
ALL EDUCATIONAL OFFICERS	65	98	122	183	163 (35%)	305 (65%)	187 (40%)	281 (60%)	468

1/ Includes superintendent, deputy superintendent and assistant superintendents.

2/ Includes executive assistants and assistants to above officers, chief examiner, directors, supervising directors, assistant to chief examiner, coordinators, statistical analysts, assistant coordinators, supervisors, research and planning associates, assistant directors, curriculum development specialist, chief attendance officer, clinical psychologists, psychiatric social workers and educational specialists.

3/ Includes President, Dean and Registrar at D. C. Teachers College.

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst: District of Columbia Schools.

In most instances, principals are in charge of a single building, aided in schools with large pupil enrollment by one or more assistant principals. Where school enrollments are small, a principal may be assigned to two or, in some situations, three buildings.

There is a variety of supervisory officers -- directors, supervising directors, supervisors -- whose duties are rarely clearly specified. Some do close classroom supervision while some are primarily concerned with inservice education. In some departments, the supervisors spend a good deal of time demonstrating teaching techniques and materials, providing direct instruction to the children while working with the teachers. The rapid expansion of the number of "educational specialists" in the offices of various subject-area supervising directors, results in the classroom teacher, especially at the elementary level, being supervised by several different specialists and being expected to attend inservice programs arranged by each of these specialists. In addition an increasing number of special programs and projects are added to the existing structure with little coordination or articulation. The central administration organization, which resulted from the merging of the segregated school system in 1954, continues to be a product of accretion rather than reorganization. This administrative organization will be discussed more fully and recommendations made for change later in this report.

The policies and procedures for appointment and assignment of school officers discussed in some detail below, are characterized by questionable practices. Specifically, the lack of preparation for officer positions either at the point of pre- or post-assignment, when coupled with the existing administrative organization for the school system, leads to serious weaknesses in leadership at all levels.

Officer Salaries. All educational officer salaries are set by Congress as part of the basic salary act. Positions are classified by the District's Personnel Office and each classification carries a specific salary and its increments. The 1966 Teachers' Salaries Act placed most educational officers' and teachers' salaries on a competitive basis with surrounding areas. This was not true, however, for the top educational officials -- the superintendent, the deputy superintendent and the assistant superintendents. The salary for the Superintendent of Schools was fixed at $26,000 with no increments -- placing it substantially below salaries paid to other city superintendents and many suburban administrators. The salaries of other local top-level superintendents are relatively low as well. While it may be possible to find a qualified person to accept the position of Superintendent of Schools even at the present salary -- the "challenge" and the national visibility of the post are attractive -- a competitive salary would increase the possibilities for securing an outstanding educational leader. Some analysts believe that the superintendent's job in a big city system cannot be done. As in Washington, D. C., the attraction of the post lies in its visibility and in the challenge to perform daily minor miracles.

An exception to the salary schedule by classification was contained in an amendment to the 1966 Teachers' Salaries Act as applied to principals. Four levels were set with a total salary differential of $600 between Levels I and IV. The act required that each principalship be assigned a level on the basis of an evaluation of:

> (A) such workload factors as (i) the academic program, (ii) the number of teachers, non-teaching personnel, and other professional and non-professional personnel supervised, (iii) school enrollment, (iv) co-curricular activities, (v) extra-curricular activities and (vi)community activities; and (B) such other factors as the Board of Education deems appropriate.

Thus, while in principle a "single salary schedule" obtains for all principalships, in reality, in fact, those in secondary schools are favored. The criterion for assignment to a level is workload and not an assessment of the principal's instructional leadership. In the initial assignment, all eleven senior high, more than half (fourteen) of the junior high, but only three elementary school principalships were placed on Level IV. Forty-one elementary principalships were placed on Level III and 62 on Level II.

It was not clear how the legislators decided to alter the single salary guide to apply these workload differentials. Needless to say, the elementary principals -- consigned to lower levels because of too few "points" -- have urged restoration of the principle of a single schedule for all. They argue that no other position or classification in the Salaries Act is so stratified. Actually, salary differentials for elementary and secondary school principals are not unusual in school systems across the nation, but a formula of this kind is atypical. The formula does make it possible for all principals to be placed at Level IV, particularly if there is liberal interpretation of the assignment of "bonus points" (extra points for special programs or conditions) or if the Board of Education mandates that "other factors" be taken into consideration.

The intent of the present law is not clear in terms of what objectives this four-level workload approach aims at attaining. It is recommended, therefore, that the Board of Education take the initiative in either endorsing a single salary schedule for all principals (based, as usual on educational qualifications and length of tenure) or a differentiated salary guide. If its decision is the latter, then the grounds for differentials should be clear and objective, readily administered and should take into account the professional demands in satisfying the educational needs of the population served. While sheer size of pupil enrollment and teaching staff are objective criteria, they do not take into account the fact that providing instructional leadership in an inner city school is a far more demanding responsibility than administering a smooth-running, suburban-style school.

Composite Portrait of School Principals and Assistant Principals

A School Officers' Questionnaire was administered in January 1967. An analysis of combined responses from 219 principals and assistant principals (83 percent of total) is contained in Appendix C. A composite portrait of the principals' group, as drawn from the questionnaire responses, follows.

Personal Characteristics. The typical elementary school principal was a Negro woman; the typical secondary school principal was a Negro man. Almost half the principals at each level are between 46 and 55 years old; about two-thirds are over 46 years old. Most of the Negro principals were born in or around the District of Columbia. Approximately two-fifths of the white principals were born outside the District in other than a Southern state.

The majority of Negro principals (over 90 percent at each level) now reside in the District; more than half the white principals live in the suburbs of Washington. The modal income from school sources for the principals was between $10,000 and $14,999. A substantial portion of the principals and assistant principals belonged to two-income families.

Job Satisfaction. At both the elementary and secondary school levels more than 90 percent of the principals reported finding their work "very" or "fairly" rewarding. In this there were no differences between white and Negro principals.

Administrative Functions. Elementary school principals reported spending a great deal of time on administration and clerical duties. Junior high principals reported spending less time on administration but more on clerical duties, parent and student conferences. The senior high principals spent a good deal of time on clerical duties, student conferences and routine administration. At all levels, the principals did not report spending a great deal of time on inservice education, professional meetings or working with community groups. Only a quarter of the elementary principals and fewer secondary principals indicated that they spent a good deal of time supervising classroom teachers.

Relations with Central Office Administration. More than three-fourths of the principals viewed communication channels with the central office as "very" or "reasonably" good. There were some differences in the responses by race: Negro elementary principals perceived communication with the central office better than did the white principals; at the junior high level, the whites rated communication channels better.

Promotion Policies. An overwhelming majority of the principals were either "very" or "somewhat" satisfied with the procedures used to appoint school officers. About the same proportions at every level believed that the procedures were fair. Generally, the Negro and white principals were equally satisfied with the practices and felt the procedures were fair. The extent of satisfaction differed markedly from the teachers who viewed the whole process with suspicion.

Track System. Unlike the classroom teachers, the principals at all levels tended to be more satisfied with the track system than were the teachers. Only a small fraction of the principals were dissatisfied with tracking. As with the teachers, there were differences by race: white principals were more satisfied than were Negro principals. The principals perceived greater flexibility in assignment to tracks (especially the Special Academic Curriculum) and more opportunity for movement out of a particular track than did the teachers. Even more than did the teachers, principals at all levels saw Special Academic students as teachable, as having the potential for achieving far beyond a fifth or sixth grade level and as being able to profit from remedial instruction.

More than four-fifths of the principals believed that academically able pupils were being challenged and that high standards were being maintained for the gifted students. They did not feel adequate programs were being provided for the disadvantaged pupils.

Students Liking of School. Elementary principals, like their teachers, expressed the belief that their students liked school. At the junior and senior high levels, however, principals tended to rate students' liking of school considerably higher than did the teachers in the same schools. There was only mild satisfaction expressed by the principals with the quality of the school work of students.

Quality of Teachers and Teaching. The principals expressed slightly higher satisfaction with the quality of teaching in their schools than with the general quality of the pupils' work. In checking a list of factors which interfered with teaching and learning, over two-fifths of the principals believed that "Teachers are inadequately prepared" and that "Too much time is spent on routine details." The principals rated morale in their schools at a much higher level than did the teachers.

Rating of Schools. Like the teachers, principals were more inclined to see their schools as about the same as others across the nation. Principals checked "as good" or "better than most" when asked to compare their schools with a "national average." Only a small percentage of the principals viewed their schools as "not as good as

most." White principals and teachers rated their schools about the same as did Negro principals and teachers when the "as good as" and "better than" ratings were combined.

Experimentation and Innovation. Principals at all levels believed that there was more experimentation and introduction of new programs than did the teachers. At the senior high level, the percentage of principals who agreed that a reasonable amount of experimentation and new instructional programs was found in their schools was double the percentage of teachers who concurred with the statement. Elementary principals viewed non-graded units and team teaching as promising proposals to be introduced. The secondary school principals rated individualized scheduling and, to a lesser extent, team teaching as promising.

In general, the principals are more satisfied with procedures and practices in the District schools than are the teachers. They are concerned with the condition of the physical plants; the lack of help which forces them to spend time on clerical routines; inadequate supplies and equipment; lack of support from the Board of Education and the central office administration; what they view as undue pressure from various community groups; experimentation and innovation which they consider inept; and poor preparation of the teachers. Their complaints differ little from their counterparts in inner city schools across the nation.

Interviews With The Principals

Staff members conducted interviews with principals of 8 senior high schools, 11 junior high schools and 12 elementary schools. The schools were selected from the so-called "school sample." The interviews ranged in time from 45 minutes to four hours, with the average about 1-1/4 hours. Each interview followed a schedule of questions prepared in advance.

Most of the principals viewed their jobs as combining at least three functions: supervision of instruction, school management - maintenance and public relations. The individual responses ranged from "everything to make teaching possible" to "jack-of-all-trades." The elementary principals were agreed that their number one problem was finding and holding competent teachers. The junior high school principals varied more, with pupil discipline their major concern. At the senior high school level, the principals were concerned with the lack of time to provide adequate supervision and professional leadership. The senior high principals also were concerned with such problems as curriculum, absenteeism, overcrowding and dropouts. At all three levels, lack of clerical assistants was viewed as a major problem.

Principals expressed an almost universal complaint: they were not consulted or involved in any way in the selection of staff. There may be some cause-effect relation between this and their view that teachers were "of poor quality," with little or no experience, and far too transient. A specific problem reported by principals was caused by the transfer of teachers in mid-semester. Some principals stated that they did unofficial recruiting on their own, attempting to attract people from outside the District.

Generally, the elementary school principals expressed satisfaction with the curriculum. However, the junior and senior high school principals were particularly dissatisfied with the inappropriate program for the non-college bound students. Most secondary school principals agreed that the curriculum was fairly good insofar as college-bound students were concerned, but they generally condemned the quality of city wide curriculum development.

All principals were in agreement that repair and maintenance services were poor and that they were handicapped here by a "fiscal straight jacket." Most, but not all, thought that the quantity and quality of books and supplies had improved considerably with the addition of Federal aid. However, delivery delays and inflexibility continued to make books and supplies a substantial problem. Several pointed out that because of the slow and inflexible procedures, supplies and orders submitted in March do not arrive until two or three months after school opens in the Fall. Consequently the principal finds himself hoarding from one year's supplies to cover the beginning of the next year. The absence of any discretionary funds for principals or for teachers increases problems in the purchase of supplies. There was some resentment on the part of a few principals from non-inner-city schools because the disadvantaged schools were receiving more money. Some principals pointed out that they were neither in "a poverty school" nor in a silk-stocking area and were caught in an economic bind.

Most principals agreed that "the community should be brought into the school" and "parents should know what is going on" but were vague about actions to achieve these ends. Generally speaking, elementary schools have more parent involvement and greater interest and participation than do junior and senior high schools. Higher income schools have greater participation of parents than do lower income schools. There are exceptions, of course,with certain low-income elementary schools being highly successful in getting parental cooperation and involvement. Principals in lower income areas viewed their schools as an important agent: "the school should help set community standards" or "the school should be the focal point of the community."

Most principals saw relationships among schools as at least good but reported that they had very little interaction except in terms of pupil placement. Except for such activities as Project 370 (a special project for the enrichment of instruction in language areas), principals reported little interchange of any kind among schools.

Almost all of the principals felt that the central office was doing a fair job but was handicapped by lack of personnel and money. While they viewed the central office as being understanding of their problems, some principals complained about parents and community members "going over their heads" to the central office and Board. Decisions are then made without consultation with the building principal.

Some of the principals complained that the inner-city schools were receiving all of the attention and support while they were being neglected. Numerous principals commented on not being consulted about new building additions, some of which proved to contain major mistakes in design and optimum use of facilities.

Principals were less enthusiastic about the Board of Education than about the central office. Several principals suggested regional meetings as a remedy to cross-town transportation for conferences on differing interest problems. There appears to be considerable dissatisfaction with psychological and pupil personnel services.

Opinions conflicted on the promotion system, with a number of principals complaining about the unfairness in promotions to federal and Model School Division positions. They felt that some teachers were selected as supervisors and assigned to work with teachers who were senior to them in service and experience.

Promotion Policies and Procedures

Of all the facets of the complex personnel operation in the District, possibly none is subject to more misunderstanding than promotion practices. The general procedures -- considered by many to be outmoded, needlessly cumbersome and time consuming--

follow a routine. When a vacancy occurs, the available position is classified by the District Personnel Department. Any position not funded in the regular budget is considered "temporary." Regular officer positions are advertised for one month, temporary positions for two weeks. By bulletins and circulars, the vacancies are advertised throughout the school system, in all schools, outside agencies, and organizations.

Congress has set a master's degree as the legal minimum qualification for officer positions but other qualifications are not specified by law. Candidates apply by filing an application and credentials. Special ratings on promotion-potential are secured from the individual's present and past supervisory officers. Finally, the candidates appear before an examining panel for an oral examination with preliminary oral screenings held when there are large numbers of candidates. The examining panel of from 5 to 10 members is appointed by the Assistant Superintendent for Personnel. The Deputy Superintendent usually heads the panel. Only officers above Salary Act Class 6 sit on panels. There is an attempt to balance representation with respect to race and, under certain circumstances, by sex as well. "Ballots" direct the panel members to judge candidates on four criteria:

1. Education (25%)
2. Experience (35%)
3. Leadership and participation (15%)
4. Oral examination (25%)

Panel members score each candidate on the four criteria and rank them in order of merit. The rankings from all the panel members are entered on a master score sheet and totaled. The candidate with the lowest average ranking is declared the first ranking candidate and his name submitted to the Superintendent.

The Superintendent submits his recommendation at a closed meeting of the Board's Personnel Committee for approval or rejection. In an open meeting which follows, the entire Board makes the final decision on officer appointments. Since the Board of Education meets only once a month to approve personnel appointments, key administrative positions remain unfilled for at least two months from the time of advertising to actual appointment. Such a time lag in key posts can and does hamper the ongoing educational program.

Criticisms of Present Procedures and Policies. There is no document which summarizes procedures for job upgrading and promotion. Chapter IX, p. 47 of the Rules of The Board of Education contains two paragraphs on the subject. One reads as follows:

> Recommendations for appointments to administrative and supervisory positions. . . and promotions of teachers and members of supervisory staff to administrative and supervisory positions, not governed by eligible lists established by the Board of Examiners, shall be made in the order of merit as established on the basis of credentials examination, including the qualifications, quality, character and length of service of the candidate.

A subsequent paragraph says that such recommendation shall be made by the Superintendent to the Personnel Committee of the Board.

The general policies on appointments and promotions are stated, but not so precisely as the provisions governing dismissals and demotions. From the rules, the Superintendent's responsibility is plain: but who decides on the merit of the candidates and on what basis? Where are the directives for career teachers on how to prepare for up-

grading and promotion? In the absence of specific preparatory programs for administrative and supervisory personnel, the requirements for promotions must be enunciated more clearly than they are in the Board Rules, -- which, incidentally, are not readily available to teachers.

In task force interviews with teachers, the most frequent response to a query, "How does one become an assistant principal or principal?" was a blank stare. Many teachers insisted no announcements of administrative openings were posted on their school office bulletin boards. Mistaken or not, these staff members were convinced that some principals withheld general notices of promotional opportunities to give an advantage to hand-picked favorites.

There is no eligibility list, even for positions frequently vacant. One reason given for the lack of eligibility lists is that each school is unique in its nature, needs and demands; thus, it is essential to select an administrator with a particular school in mind. While there is some logic to this viewpoint the consequences are harmful. For example, the "number 2" candidate for a particular principalship must start all over from the beginning in the application and screening process for the next opening. The frustration of continuing to apply until the specific competencies of Applicant Number Two match the specific needs of a particular school can be imagined.

Fanning the flames of resentment of this process is the fact that the current screening and selection procedures give no hint as to how an objective, individual assessment of personal competencies is made. The only stated measures are training, experience and length of service in the District schools. However, even these stipulations are not clarified to guide applicants.

It is true that full and complete "position descriptions" exist and indicate quite clearly the nature and scope of the position as well as the skills and knowledges required. However, the description for the principalship, as for the others, seems more keyed to the establishment of an eligibility list than to differentiation among the requirements of principalships for the various schools.

The net effect of all this is to raise doubts about the integrity of the system in the minds of many potential candidates for promotion. At the very least, these are questions centering around the age-old issue of "what you know versus who you know." Worst is the widespread assumption that the promotion policies do not really provide equal opportunity for all candidates. The prime example is that Negro principals are not found in predominantly white schools, a pattern which would have been almost impossible to maintain had there been an eligibility list. Despite the recent preponderance of "Negro appointments," there still is a feeling that discrimination functions at the top. It will persist as long as the present practices continue. The task force also uncovered a feeling that successful candidates may not always be the most competent, but they can be counted on "not to rock the boat." If these impressions are as widespread as they seem, policies and procedures must reckon with them.

Board policy has dealt recently with one point of controversy. This was the "freezing in" of individuals selected for interim appointments by then giving them priority for permanent appointments.

The oral examination, to some teachers served to eliminate an "unwanted candidate." Accepting the concept of the oral examination itself, they opposed certain of its features: established patterns of expectations for the candidates, a lack of uniformity in the questions asked, and no information as to weighting of the elements in the screening process. The oral interview represents a kind of "two-edged sword." In the

first place, a completely objective screening process, if conceivable, would leave little room for administrative judgment in the selection of key personnel. In the second place, computerized data do not guarantee selection of the best person for a particular job. Oral examination by competent interviewers is one means of ensuring some flexibility and human judgment. The oral interview, properly weighted, can help to personalize the selection process, to find the "right" man for the job. On the other hand, the oral interview misused can be a discriminatory technique. A superficial impression drawn from glib verbal ability, personal appearance and educational sophistication could -- and has -- worked against applicants whose prior job performance should have earned a promotion.

Teachers Advisory Committee on Officer Promotion System.[1/] In June, 1966 a committee of teachers was appointed to review current promotional policies and procedures. The committee was named following the complaint on behalf of an unsuccessful officer-candidate. The candidate had appealed to the D. C. Human Relations Council "on charges of bias, discrimination, favoritism, and a lack of objective procedures in the process of selecting and appointing school officers." The Teachers Advisory Committee conducted a number of informal interviews on the attitudes and opinions of school personnel, studied the procedures used by other large city systems in promotions and appointments, and conducted a questionnaire survey. Of 706 questionnaires submitted to a sample of teachers, administrators and other professional personnel, 476 or 67% were returned. Over half of the respondents had at one time applied for an officer position and, of these, slightly less than 50% had in fact been promoted.

The questionnaire indicated that 44 percent did not agree that the present promotion system was effective in selecting the best candidate; only 18 percent believed it was effective. On the question of opportunities for promotion being open to all, 41 percent agreed, 36 percent did not. Of those individuals who had actually appeared before an oral examination panel, 41 percent judged present procedures inadequate while 33 percent felt they served adequately. The same gap existed between those who stated that "present promotional opportunities help retain personnel in the D. C. public schools" (30 percent) while 42 percent disagreed. Almost two-thirds of the respondents believed that "at times, certain candidates are favored and chosen before the examination is held" (62 percent) while 10 percent denied this situation. More striking is the fact that 41 percent of those who had served on examining panels also felt de facto appointments preceded examinations through favoritism, 30 percent disagreed. Slightly more than half of the respondents felt that experience in the District schools should not be required for officer promotions; 37 percent supported local experience as a requirement. (Eighty-eight percent of those who had served on examining panels felt that local experience should not be a prerequisite.) More than half of the respondents (56 percent) approved the Superintendent's Circulars for advertising positions, while a third disagreed. More than three-fourths of the respondents supported the establishment of "eligibility lists"; 51 percent supported annual examinations and eligibility lists; established; 26 percent want a list but favored a new examination whenever the list was exhausted; only 20 percent favored an examination each time a vacancy occurred.

The respondents were almost equally split on the question of a written examination as a requirement: 53 percent opposed it while 47 percent approved. The same kind of division existed among those who had served on examination panels: 52 percent favored a required test; 48 percent disagreed.

1/ Teachers Advisory Committee on Office Promotion System, "A Study of the Officer Promotion System." Report submitted to Board of Education, April 19, 1967.

With respect to "who should sit on oral examination panels for officer positions?" the rank order of responses was as follows:

1. Top administrative officers
2. Superintendent or Deputy Superintendent
3. Supervisory staff
4. Principals and assistant principals
5. Teachers
6. Teacher organization representatives
7. Professionals from outside
8. A permanent panel

The rank order of the items which respondents thought should be given weight in constructing an examination for officers was as follows:

1. Educational background
2. Experience
3. Leadership and special participation
4. Oral examination
5. Ratings by present and former principals and supervisors
6. Written examination
7. Observation on the job by a rating team
8. Seniority in the D. C. public schools
9. Letters from citizens and educational personnel

Except for the order, the four criteria given most weight by the respondents were those already used by the panels.

Requirements for eligibility to apply for an officer position were ranked as follows:

1. Master's degree
2. Two or more graduate courses in administration or supervision
3. Several years of appropriate experience
4. A minimum length of service in the D. C. public schools
5. Experience as an officer in evening or summer school, as department head, as head teacher or similar experience
6. Written endorsement by the current principal or supervisory officer
7. Completion of an internship as an officer

In April 1967, the Teachers Advisory Committee submitted the analysis of its interview and survey data, together with a number of proposals for changes in the policies and procedures used.

Improving the Officer Selection Procedures. Confidence in the promotional process must be bolstered immediately through procedural reform if teachers, present officers, the general public and the Board are to gain assurance in the selection of school officers. The Board itself should be involved only in the selection of top-level administrators, reserving its legal right of final approval on lower-level administrators. The basic responsibility for selecting principals and supervisors should reside with the Superintendent and his staff, given clear cut policies to guide their procedures.

During the school year 1965-1966 the Personnel Department processed more than 901 applications for officer positions, held 90 examinations which led to 186 appointments. Many of the positions had multiple vacancies and some individuals applied a dozen or

more times. Since unsuccessful candidates were not told why they were not promoted, many individuals applied futilely time and again though their chances for promotion were practically non-existent.

When 60 elementary school assistant principalships opened up at the outset of the school year, the Personnel Department had to screen candidates before submitting the shortened list to the Deputy Superintendent and his officer selection panel. A procedure using building-level officers from the field, conversant with classroom and school needs, could have helped in paring the list down.

The Teachers Advisory Committee on Officer Promotion has made significant recommendations both for policy and procedural change. Its proposals called for:

1. A master's degree for entry-level administrative jobs, with 30 hours above the master's or a professional certificate for principal and higher level position.

2. Five years of "successful or outstanding" teacher experience, of which at least three should have been in the District schools.

3. At least one year's service in an officer's position before becoming eligible for promotion.

4. A yearly general examination for administration candidates.

5. An eligibility list established and retained for at least three years.

6. Publication and clear explanation of the requirements for each position.

On procedural changes, the Committee recommended that the general yearly examination should consist of three parts: (1) a written qualifying test examination developed and administered by an outside agency (20 percent); (2) a credentials examination covering education and special training, experience, leadership and participation within the school and educational organizations, ratings by principals and supervisors, publications, research, seniority, community participation and youth and welfare work (65 percent); and (3) an oral examination (15 percent). The oral examiners would include the assistant superintendent, two or three administrators or supervisors within the field under consideration, one or more educators from a college or university or other educational agencies. Oral questions should be prepared in advance, according to a systematic pattern and the rating criteria should be detailed.

Race in Promotion and Assignment. In 1966-67, Negroes filled four of the 11 top assistant superintendencies (Building and Grounds, Pupil Personnel Services, Model School Division, Urban Service Corps and President of the D. C. Teachers College); 61 percent of other central supervisory officer positions; 62 percent of all principal and assistant principalships. Negroes constituted 65 percent of all school officers in the District. These figures hardly suggest discrimination against Negroes being promoted to officer positions for the system as a whole although charges of a different kind have been made. One criticism has to do with principal assignments. As pointed out earlier, white principals were generally found in the few predominantly white schools. An eligibility list based on order of qualification would help alleviate this situation. The second charge of covert discrimination is that the key decision-making posts were all held by whites. (With the resignation and retirement of the Superintendent and Deputy Superintendent of Schools in July 1967, the two top positions are vacant at the time of this report.)

The issue the Board of Education faces is a particularly complex one in the consideration of race in promotion and assignments. Unlike some large cities which have substantial Negro, Puerto Rican, Mexican-American and other minority-group pupil populations but very few educational leaders from these groups, two-thirds of all District of Columbia's educational officers are Negro. Is this proportion adequate or is it high? Thus far, the District has not engaged in the practice employed by some large city school systems where particular administrative positions were perceived as "belonging" to a particular ethnic or racial group.

The Board's problem is one of determining what the educational needs of the District are and which individuals possess the talent and leadership potential needed to fill these needs. While the Board should be color-conscious and should actively encourage qualified Negro applicants, race must not be the sole criterion in making appointments. If the District is viewed as a "Negro school system," all efforts to provide some degree of balance in staff and administration will be stymied.

Recommendations for Promotion Policy and Procedural Changes. The overall recommendations of the Teachers Advisory Committee are sound. It is, therefore, recommended that eligibility lists be set up to end the practice -- wasteful of time and morale -- of duplicating procedures every time a vacancy occurs. Maintenance of eligibility lists, based on annual or semi-annual examinations would speed filling officer vacancies. Morale in the system would rise as key positions were filled from it and leadership vacuums disappeared. A principal in a large, problem-ridden school, for instance, would have a desperately needed assistant principal within days and not months as at present. The procedures proposed by the committee for establishing the list are basically sound.

Promotion policies and procedures must be clearly delineated to eliminate any suspicion of discrimination, favoritism or lack of equal opportunity. The proposed Personnel Handbook should spell out promotion policies and procedures so that staff clearly comprehend what must be done and how.

It is recommended that the Personnel Committee of the Board of Education cease to assess the personnel files of each of the officer candidates. If the committee does so now because of mistrust and apprehension about the functioning of the promotion and appointment system, then changes in the procedures must mitigate this distrust. Scrutiny of individual nominee's files casts doubt on the validity of the procedures used to select officers as well as on the competence of the personnel on the panels. The Board's Personnel Committee should be concerned with establishing policies which make such reviews unnecessary.

It is recommended that the District Schools develop a systematic pattern for preparing administrators, beginning with an administrative internship program. Instituting an internship program would permit on-the-job assessment of prospective candidates while training was underway. Field evaluation, focusing on interaction and critical personality variables, is more valid than dubious rankings based solely on brief interviews, paper qualifications and longevity. The assistant principalship should be recognized as an interim post in an administrative career. The position is now viewed as a dead-end job rather than as a post in which one is trained for higher-level supervisory and administrative responsibilities.

Finally, it is recommended that internships and general recruitment of individuals for administrative and supervisory posts not be restricted to District personnel. The District system must actively seek people with new ideas, insights, talents and enthusiasm -- wherever they may exist. If the Washington schools are to strive for racial

balance in its administrative staff as well as its pupil and teacher populations, then it must aggressively seek talent, white and Negro, wherever it may be. The combination of an internship program plus an eligibility list could do much to restore confidence in the administrative leadership in the District's schools. Unless an active recruitment and training are undertaken, the racial balance question will become academic in the District as the number of whites applying for lower-level officer positions (such as assistant principalships) continues to dwindle.

If the teacher is the key to the quality of instruction, the educational officer is the key to the maximum effectiveness of the teacher. These recommendations are aimed at revising the system of selecting, training and promoting educational officers to give the District the leadership quality equal to the difficulties and the necessities of the school system's inescapable mission.

Administrative Organization of The District Schools 1/

The present organization of the District schools is the product of a combination of factors. Desegregation in 1954 meant the merging of two separate administrative organizations. Growth in pupil population and in teaching personnel has required increased administrative and supervising staff. New programs, some funded by such federal programs as NDEA and ESEA and others initiated by sponsors outside the school system, have also called for additional staffing.

The administrative organization of the District schools must take into account these special considerations:

1. The fiscal relationships among the schools, the District government and Congress, which require far more attention to budget and legislative activities than is necessary in most school systems.

2. The links between the school and District Government departments in such areas as civil service classification of personnel, building maintenance and new school design, which are unique.

3. The absence of a state department of education, which encumbers the District with functions normally handled by state level personnel -- e.g., certification of teachers, administration of federal programs, and negotiation with the U.S. Office of Education.

4. The lack of a formal political life, and consequently, parents' and community groups' pressures for almost instant accessibility to school personnel.

5. The size of the pupil population and its nature -- a large segment coming from ghettos and requiring special compensatory programs.

6. The teaching staff, which must be upgraded generally and also trained to develop the specialized skills and insights required for working in center city schools.

7. The need to construct a showcase of school innovations in urban education which will enable the District system to attract new resources and staff, after years of decline.

1/ Dr. Arthur J. Lewis and Dr. Willard S. Elsbree prepared the report on which this section is based.

Without listing all of the District's handicaps, it should be clear from this brief inventory that reorganization is imperative to restore Washington's schools to good health.

Present Organization. The present administration is organized into the usual line-and-staff: a Superintendent of Schools, a Deputy Superintendent and 10 Assistant Superintendents. The President of the D. C. Teachers College has ranked with the Assistant Superintendents; however, the college will be absorbed by the Board of Higher Education soon.

The Assistant Superintendents head the following departments:

Junior-Senior High Schools
Elementary Schools
Adult and Vocational Education, Summer Schools
Business Administration
Buildings and Grounds
General Research, Budget and Legislation
Personnel Administration
Pupil Personnel Services
Model School Division
Urban Service Corps

Three of the assistant superintendents are concerned with operating units (elementary, secondary, vocational and adult programs); four deal with functional operations (business administration, buildings and grounds, personnel administration and pupil personnel). The remaining three are assigned functions peculiar to Washington: research, budget and legislation.

The Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation was created to facilitate work with Congress and the District Government. That office assembles and interprets data bearing on the needs of the schools and translates these into monetary terms. Its research had been restricted to assembling statistical data until recently, when in connection with ESEA programs, it negotiated for research and evaluation by university agencies. By preparing the budget and the justifications for items on the budget, this department exercises an influential role in determining the District school program. The Model School Division involves program development and operation of 18 schools in the "Inner-City Target Area." While still finding itself, the MSD is beginning to emerge as a sub-system within the school. The Urban Service Corps is responsible for recruiting and training volunteers to serve in the schools. Each of the departments employs assistants, directors, supervising directors and other personnel.

Limitations of The Present Organization. Nine structural defects of the present organization interfere with effective operation of the school system:

1. Because there are no intermediate districts or sub-divisions, the Superintendent of Schools is in a direct-line relationship, through the Deputy and Assistant Superintendents, to the principals at the building level. A superintendent of schools in any large city has many demands on his time and energies from outside the system but the unique relation of the District schools to Congress places additional external demands on the Superintendent. The purpose of establishing an office of Deputy Superintendent was to free the Superintendent to work with the Board of Education and Congress and to fulfill the executive leadership functions of the chief administrator. In the District, the Superintendent is called upon to testify before Congressional hearings on a $100 million budget, advise the Board on major policy decisions, report cafeteria

receipts, meet parents to discuss a school boundary and guide his cabinet on a far-reaching, program proposal. Recent journal articles have raised the question of whether any big city superintendency is a manageable position; in the District, the question is especially pointed.

2. The Deputy Superintendent of Schools is the Superintendent's aide responsible for the day-by-day operations of the entire school system. The organization has 10 assistant superintendents, six directors, and 12 subject-field supervising directors reporting to the Deputy Superintendent. This concentration of key program officials inevitably has confronted the Deputy Superintendent with overwhelming demands for decision-making. He has difficulty engaging in any long-range planning with his subordinates and they, in turn, are reluctant to take up his time. Quite naturally, staff members short-circuit organizational lines to operate with even a minimum of effectiveness. Since adequate control fades, empires are built and important tasks are left undone. In addition to other responsibilities, the Deputy Superintendent is on all panels for oral interviews for promotions, a time-consuming assignment since there are dozens of school officer posts open each year.

3. The Assistant Superintendents for Elementary and for Junior and Senior High Schools have 111 and 36 principals, respectively, reporting directly to them. Except for the 18 schools in the Model School Division, all other building principals are in direct line relationship to these two administrators. The Assistant Superintendent for Elementary Schools has a breadth of responsibility which goes well beyond the instructional program and includes such activities as: interviewing candidates for elementary teaching positions; processing personnel papers and preparing Board Orders for teacher appointments; assigning and dismissing pupils; approving requisitions for textbooks, supplies and repairs; and administering the milk and lunch programs.

Though dealing with fewer principals, the Assistant Superintendent for Junior and Senior High Schools has a similar range. Responsible for the general direction and supervision of instruction, organization and management of all junior and senior high schools (except for those in the Model School Division), he is also charged with overseeing the work of directors, supervising directors and assistant directors of the subject field departments; supervising the work of the Department of Guidance and Placement in the secondary schools; admitting, dismissing or demoting students.

Principals are reluctant to impose on the time of an overburdened superior for guidance and tend to lose touch with the central administration, except for crises. The assistant superintendents are unable to provide adequate coordination and direction for their respective programs. Articulation between school levels has been hampered.

4. The responsibility for curriculum development and instructional improvement is dispersed among four assistant superintendents, all subject-field departments and a curriculum department. The various offices responsible for instructional improvement suffer from lack of coordination and communication. The curriculum Department is understaffed. Program innovations are encouraged but the planning procedures inhibit long-range proposals. No school officer and no department has prime responsibility for curriculum development, instructional experimentation, research and evaluation. The Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation handles statistical analyses and contracts for evaluative studies of specific federal programs (e.g., Title I, ESEA). The system-wide testing is administered by the Group Measurement Division under the direction of the Pupil Personnel Department. The division is unequipped for research and, aside from reporting test scores, is unable to provide useful evaluative data.

5. Personnel Administration is still decentralized across a number of departments.

Staff development activities are limited, including in-service education. The school system is just beginning to engage in collective bargaining and negotiating with non-administrative personnel. What the District needs is a strong staff management and development program.

6. Supervision is fragmented among numerous departments and offices. The District has added a number of educational specialists to the offices of the subject-field supervising directors. In some instances, these persons are primarily supervisors of classroom teachers. In others, they are classroom teachers. At the elementary level, the impact on teachers who are supervised by several specialists and who are expected to attend in-service programs arranged by these specialists has led to predicted negative situations. The present administrative organization makes no provision for coordination of supervisory services.

7. Special education programs and services are disjointed and overlapping. A Director of Special Education in the Department of Pupil Personnel Services handles planning, organizing, directing and evaluating of the academic, emotional, physical and behavioral development of handicapped pupils, as well as their placement. There is also a Supervising Director of Special Education in the office of the Assistant Superintendent for Junior and Senior High Schools. A third official has responsibility for the programs for the Severely Mentally Retarded (Trainable Mentally Retarded): he is the principal of the building in which the classes are located. Educable Mentally Retarded Children (included in Special Academic Curriculum classes) are not considered part of special education but are the responsibility of the assistant superintendents in charge of elementary and secondary schools. The entire field of special education in the District lacks cohesiveness, partly because of the failure to clarify and coordinate responsibilities and functions.

8. New programs emerge and are either tacked onto existing administrative units or operate independently. For example, there are Directors for the Phonovisual program, the Great Cities Project, and for Project 370, whose lines of authority are unclear.

9. The present structure offers no intermediate reception points for school and community. Parents and citizen groups confer with the building principal or with the top administrative officers. The latter cannot possibly be familiar with conditions at each of the more than 180 units and yet they are called upon to arbitrate, to approve, to respond to the concerns of local groups and individuals. School-community relationships are obstructed, not harmonized, by the existing network.

In summary, the present organization seems to have accumulated over the years, adding complexity and weaknesses. Far too many individuals report to a single person to permit effective discharge of responsibilities. The lines of communication waver. By failing to distinguish between officers with advisory status and those with line authority, the organization undermines coordination. In many instances, operating functions are not grouped logically for effective administration and synchronization. Reporting relationships are unclear in some areas, duplicative in others. Finally, a partial explanation of some of these noted gaps may spring from Washington's failure to correct a defect criticized publicly 21 years ago: the absence of a central office with adequate space for work, meeting, and parking, as the 1948 Strayer Report noted, seriously curbs efficiency.

Proposed Reorganization of the Schools

Organizational plans usually move downward from the peak of the hierarchy to a

series of subordinates to whom responsibility is delegated. However, in operating a school system, the focal unit should be the individual pupil, whose progress through an educational program is assured by effective teachers. The purpose of an administrative organization is to assist and support teachers as they facilitate the progress of the pupil through the schools.

The School Building Unit. The proposed organization starts with the individual school as the basic unit. The principal is responsible for the operation of the school and for the quality of its educational program. A number of specialists (full-time and part-time) should be attached to the individual school unit. The principal, whose concern is the intrinsic and supplemental educational program in the building ,will cooperate with the specialists in developing standards of excellent learning and teaching, assisting teachers and others to implement these standards, and auditing the results. When a specialist works in a building he should be a member of the building principal's staff.

The type and amount of specialist assistance allotted to a given school will depend upon the age range of students in the school and the particular needs of the school. Three types of assistance should be provided:

a. Instructional services, including general supervision, subject area supervision and audio-visual aids;

b. Pupil personnel services, including guidance, special education, psychological testing, health and attendance;

c. Administrative support, including teacher personnel services, equipment and supplies, lunchroom operation and building maintenance.

Community Schools. The schools should be transformed into community schools, collecting and offering the variety of services and opportunities their areas need. The community school could function along the lines defined by the New Haven Board of Education:

a. As an education center -- a place where children and adults have opportunities for study and learning.

b. As a neighborhood community center -- a place where citizens of all ages may take part in such things as sports, physical fitness programs, informal recreation, arts and crafts classes, civic meetings, and other leisure-time activities.

c. As a center for community services -- the place where individuals and families may obtain health services, counseling services, legal aid, employment services, and the like.

d. As an important center of neighborhood or community life -- the catalyst for uniting citizens in the study and solution of significant neighborhood problems.1/

Since communities differ, the varieties of services and leadership should be responses to school-community planning. The school building need not house all health,

1/ New Haven Community Progress, Inc. Opening Opportunities. New Haven: Community Progress, Inc., 1962. pp. 5-6.

social, legal and other services, but rather, it should open ready access to these necessities. As an educational institution, the community school should use the neighborhood and the city as a laboratory for study, supplementing classroom, teacher and building resources. Then, the school will approach President Johnson's prediction that:

> Tomorrow's school will be a school without walls -- a school built of doors which will open to the entire community.
>
> Tomorrow's school will reach out to the places that enrich the human spirit -- to the museums, theaters, the art galleries, to the parks and rivers and mountains.
>
> It will align itself with the city, its busy streets and factories, its assembly lines and laboratories -- so that the world of work does not seem an alien place for the student.
>
> Tomorrow's school will be the center of community life, for grown-ups as well as children -- a "shopping center of human services."

Alternatives to 6-3-3 Organization. The District schools follow the most common organizational pattern in urban school systems, the 6-3-3 plan. A review of the development of grade-clustering throughout the history of American education clearly indicates more chance than choice. In the 1890's seeds of discontent with the 8-4 structure began to fall on fertile soil. Major reorganizations of secondary education took place during the period between 1910 and 1950, when two-thirds of the school districts in the nation reorganized their elementary programs within six-year boundaries and their secondary programs within the same period. Thus, the 6-6, 6-2-4 and 6-3-3 organizations nearly obscured the persistent 8-4 pattern which is still found, primarily in non-public schools.

In the past half dozen years or so, school systems have moved to install alternative arrangements, including 4-4-4, 6-2-4, 5-4-3 and 5-3-4 schemes. New terms -- "middle school" and "intermediate school" -- have been born. Research evidence supporting one framework over another is lacking. The four-year high school has firm adherents and a vigorous tradition is still visible in the preparation of secondary school teachers. While some middle school supporters now advocate the change to improve racial balance in some school systems, others are setting forth rationales to support the new unit for educational reasons.

It is recommended that the District schools not undertake a system-wide grade school reorganization. Instead, the District should test different grade organizations involving alternative arrangements, to permit experimentation, careful observation and evaluation.

For instance, one high school might be converted into a four-year unit (some ninth grade classes already are in high school buildings to alleviate junior high school crowding). One or more feeder schools to this high school could be designated middle schools. The purpose of these changes would be to use the new grouping as the basis for experimenting with new programs appropriate to the age range found in the unit. In designing and locating new school buildings, the possibilities for reorganization should be considered and the primary-middle school arrangement tested. If the proposal for Vocational-Technical Centers is implemented, or if Learning Centers are developed, these units would make possible experimentation with existing facilities servicing different grade groups.

The middle schools present the educator with an opportunity to develop a new institution. Neither changing the name nor moving the grade-level brackets up or down a notch will necessarily affect the character of the education provided. The focus must be on the program ends and means. It is recommended that alternative organizations be studied and tested on a limited basis. Such tests should extend beyond the grade groupings and should include experiments with satellite schools and learning centers, short-term program centers and even residential schools.

Community Districts, Local Boards and Superintendents. Six to eight Community Superintendents should be appointed as heads of decentralized sub-systems, charged with overall responsibility for the operation of the elementary and secondary schools in the areas. They could also supply special assistance to the schools; coordinate the educational programs between levels; serve as chief administrative officers for citizens on the Community Boards of Education. Were each of these sub-systems of approximately equal size, the pupil population served would be approximately 20,000. Such systems could improve the effectiveness of school management and link the schools closely to their communities.

The amount of authority and autonomy vested in the Community Board of Education and in the Community Superintendent are the determining factors as to the value of decentralization. If the local boards are given complete responsibility and authority, including power to allocate funds, the present system would split into six or eight nearly independent school districts. On the other hand, if the boards are restricted to serving in an advisory capacity,tokenism and scarcely any decentralization will result. It is recommended that local boards be given considerable autonomy to operate community school systems.

One of the weaknesses in most attempts to decentralize the administration of a large city school system has been the failure to delegate real responsibility and authority to district officials and local boards. As a result both interest and morale have waned. To achieve the major objectives of decentralization, it is necessary to develop strong interest in the schools on the part of the people who reside in the district and send their children to the schools. Distance from central headquarters constitutes a real barrier in getting quick and sound decisions on educational matters. A local superintendent, one who has been chosen by the Community Board of Education, could settle quickly many problems that are now routed to the central office and often delayed. Beyond achieving increased efficiency in responding to local problems, his proximity to individual schools should enable the Community Superintendent to provide superior leadership to staff in improvement of the educational program.

The Community Boards of Education should be elected by voters from the district involved for three year terms. These boards should be empowered to choose a Community Superintendent from a list of candidates submitted by the Superintendent of Schools and approved by the District Board of Education. Professionals from outside the system, as well as local applicants, should be considered for nomination. In the event that none of the candidates on the list is acceptable to the Community Board, the Superintendent should be requested to furnish additional candidates. Community superintendencies should carry three-year contracts.

Jurisdiction of the Community Board of Education should cover: setting policies that do not conflict with central school board rules; advising the local superintendent of community sentiment towards the school program and needs of the district; consulting on the budget for the local district; helping select personnel for the schools within its jurisdictions; approving appointment of new principals and area educational officers. In sum, the Community Board of Education should be responsible for the operation of the

educational program locally. Its relationship with the District of Columbia Board of Education might be modeled after that of the local school districts and the state boards; the former responsible for local operation, the latter having overall responsibility.

The Community Superintendent. The Community Superintendent should administer the schools in his district. He should provide for the evaluation of staff and program; account for equipment; justify requests for materials, repairs and staff. He would of necessity delegate some of these duties to others but he must accept responsibility for their execution. Adequate office space must be located in the district for the Superintendent and his staff.

While recruitment and teacher selection for the District of Columbia should continue to be centralized, the Community Superintendent's right to assign employees would assure flexible staffing for the district. As director of orientation of new teachers, the Community Superintendent could utilize central office assistance. While the Community Superintendent should be free to select principals, preferably from a small slate of nominees submitted by the Superintendent of the Central District, he should discuss appointments with the Community Board of Education. But thus keeping clear the channels of communication with parents, the Community Superintendent also would be meeting the leadership needs of the schools. Substitute teachers should be chosen from a pool and assigned by the Community Superintendent who would have some responsibility for their recruitment. Supervision of non-instructional staff should be delegated to the local districts. This should include their assignment and the evaluation of their performance.

The Community Superintendent and his staff should have considerable leeway in developing an instructional program adapted to the needs of students within the local schools. Supervisory assistance -- in-service education, for example -- should be sustained by the Community Superintendent's staff, supplemented by such central assistance as may be desirable.

There are certain limitations which must be acknowledged in delegating authority for budget items to the Community Boards of Education and the Community Superintendents. This is especially true in Washington, where several different boards and agencies have legal responsibilities for the budget. In spite of this, granting the local districts some controls over budget is essential. The expenditure per pupil might well differ somewhat among districts, according to demonstrated needs. Obviously, this practice would have to be based on evidence submitted and all requests fully justified. After approval, the central administration should incorporate these budget requests in the District of Columbia School budget.

Within existing legal limitations, some funds should be allotted to local districts to be dispensed by local school officials as needs warrant: e.g., books, supplies, materials, and movable equipment. Funds for experimentation and innovation should be provided as well. Consideration should be given to the needs of individual schools within the district as a basis for allocation of funds. The capital budget hearings should be held locally early enough to insure careful consideration and to permit the central planning office time to consider and include them in the District's overall budget.

The Community Superintendent would be responsible for the operation of all schools within his assigned geographical area, except for vocational high schools and for the coordination of services to the schools. He would be aided by a staff including a Director of Instructional Services, Director of Pupil Personnel Services, Director of Business, Director of Personnel. The following are examples of responsibilities that could be assigned:

a. Director of Instructional Services: direction and coordination of general supervision, subject area supervision and audio-visual services; curriculum development and selection of materials; staff development.

b. Director of Pupil Personnel Services: supervision and coordination of guidance, special education, psychological services, health and attendance services;

c. Director of Business: budget, maintenance and operation of buildings, transportation of pupils, lunchroom operation, provision of equipment and supplies;

d. Director of Personnel: assignment and transfer of teachers, personnel records.

e. Assistant for Planning, Research and Evaluation: long-term planning, evaluation and research. Planning and program evaluation.

f. Assistant for School-Community Relations: development of school-community relations, public information, news and communication media.

The organization of a Community Superintendent's district, as suggested by Chart Number 1 is not unlike that found in school systems of about the same size in suburbs and small cities. It provides an opportunity for maximum decentralization, for installing the decision-making apparatus near the operations.

Special Education: Vocational, Adult and Continuing Education. In dividing the district into community areas, two programs should continue as system-wide departments: Special Education and Vocational, Adult and Continuing Education.

Although substantial numbers of pupils are involved in various Special Education programs, there are not enough pupils with any one type of disability to support local area programs. (See Chapter 13 for specific recommendations). The Department of Special Education should conduct diagnosis and placement, instructional programs and services, organize staff training.

Similarly, the vocational high schools, adult education centers and related programs serve the entire District. Community schools would certainly develop adult programs. The present vocational high schools could expand into new operations, such as an area skills center for students from several high schools. The development of programs at the Washington Technical Institute and the Federal City College (charged with providing both a two-year as well as a four-year program) will have a major impact on vocational, technical and adult education in the District. In the meantime, such programs should function city-wide, with the central office staff providing most of the service functions.

As for the potential subsidies for vocational and adult education available from the U. S. Office of Education and the Office of Manpower Training and Development, the District's department must explore all possibilities. Chart Number 2 proposes an organization for these two departments.

Division of Community School Coordination. A Deputy Superintendent of Schools would be liaison among the Community Superintendents, the Department of Special Education, the Department of Vocational, Adult and Continuing Education and the central administration of the District schools. Thus, the operation of all school programs would be coordinated under the Deputy Superintendent in charge of the Division of

Community School Coordination. The Deputy would have an Executive Assistant and such other staff members as required. Charts 1 and 2 trace the relationship of this division office to the operating units.

Division of Planning, Innovation and Research. This division would sustain program development, innovation, research and long-range planning for all schools. It would support program evaluation. With the District's unique budgetary process and relationships with Congress, budget and legislation are in the divisional package: new programs must be translated into budget terms and justified for legislators. Four departments would comprise this division: Program Planning and Development, Research and Evaluation, Budget and Legislation and Long-Range Planning and Innovation. (See Chart No. 3).

a. Program Planning and Development: curriculum development, coordination and general program review of instructional program proposals; assistants and support for community Directors of Instructional Services; coordination of grant programs and funds.

b. Research and Evaluation: design and implementation of research and investigations; tests and measurements; statistical analysis; program evaluation; coordination of contract evaluation; consultation and support for community school studies; preparation and dissemination of reports.

c. Budget and Legislation: development of program budgets for the District and and special funds to implement recommendations and requests from Community Superintendents; project operating and capital requirements; translate program planning into budget needs and legislative requirements.

d. Long-Range Planning and Innovation: development of new programs in any area of the school system's operation; concern not with day-by-day operations but rather, with long-range plans and proposals; temporary task forces organized around the planning problem; cooperative working relationships with institutions of higher education, foundations, innovative agencies and other urban systems.

Division of Personnel Services. This division will coordinate all system-wide personnel activities involving pupils, staff and employees. Through its two departments, the division will relate to the operating units in the field. Each Community Superintendent will have a Director of Pupil Personnel Services and a Director of Staff Personnel. While most staff in Pupil Personnel Services would be assigned to the community offices, a small force would be needed at central headquarters for system-wide functions.

Two departments would operate under this division:

a. Pupil Personnel Services: coordination of regional activities for guidance and counseling, psychological and mental health services, pupil accounting and pupil personnel services.

b. Staff Personnel Services: recruitment, joint programs with institutions of high education, certification and licensing, staff training and development, promotions, administrative career development, non-teaching employee relations, recruitment and training of paraprofessionals, employee negotiations.

CHART I
COMMUNITY
SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

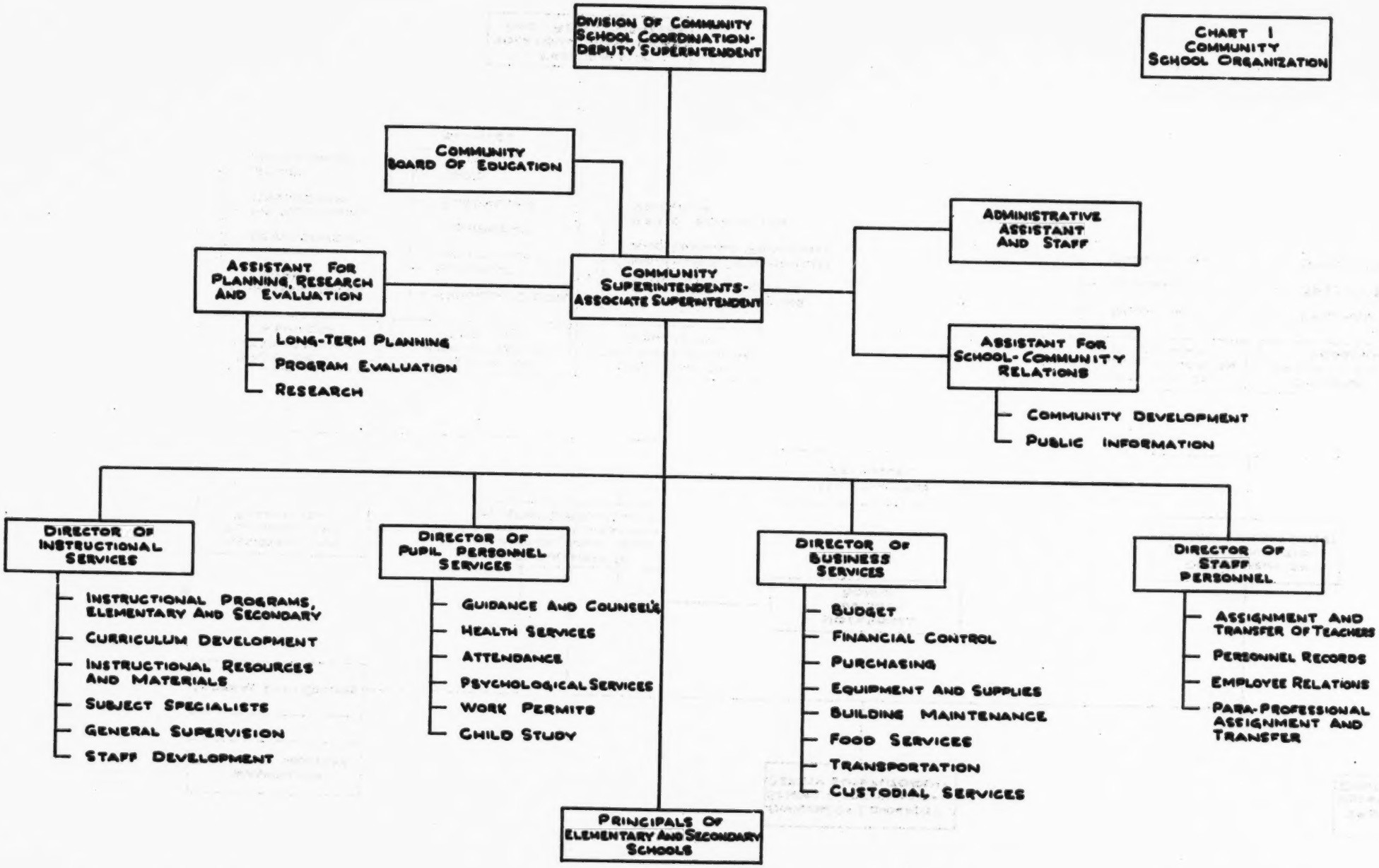
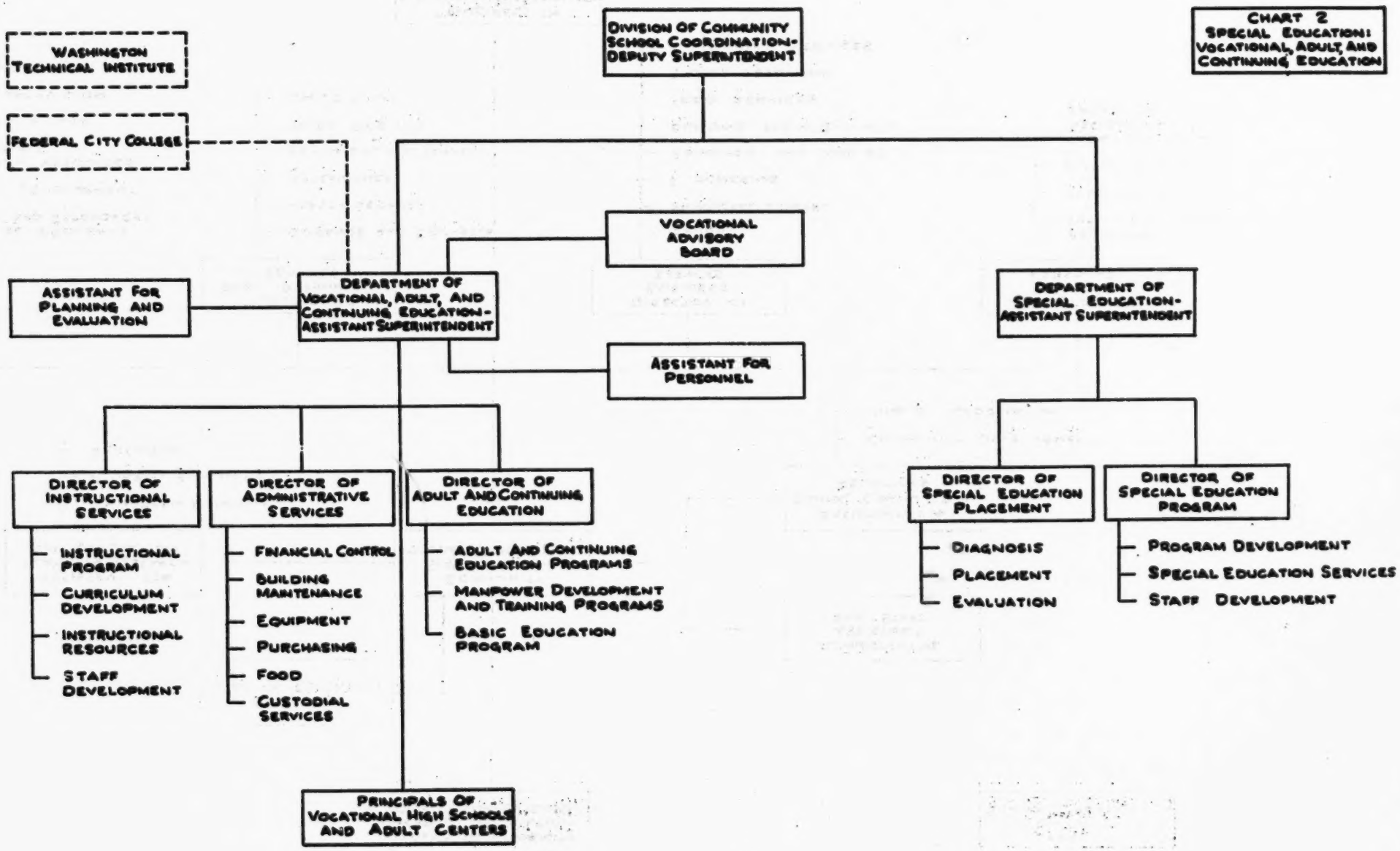


CHART 2
SPECIAL EDUCATION: VOCATIONAL, ADULT, AND CONTINUING EDUCATION



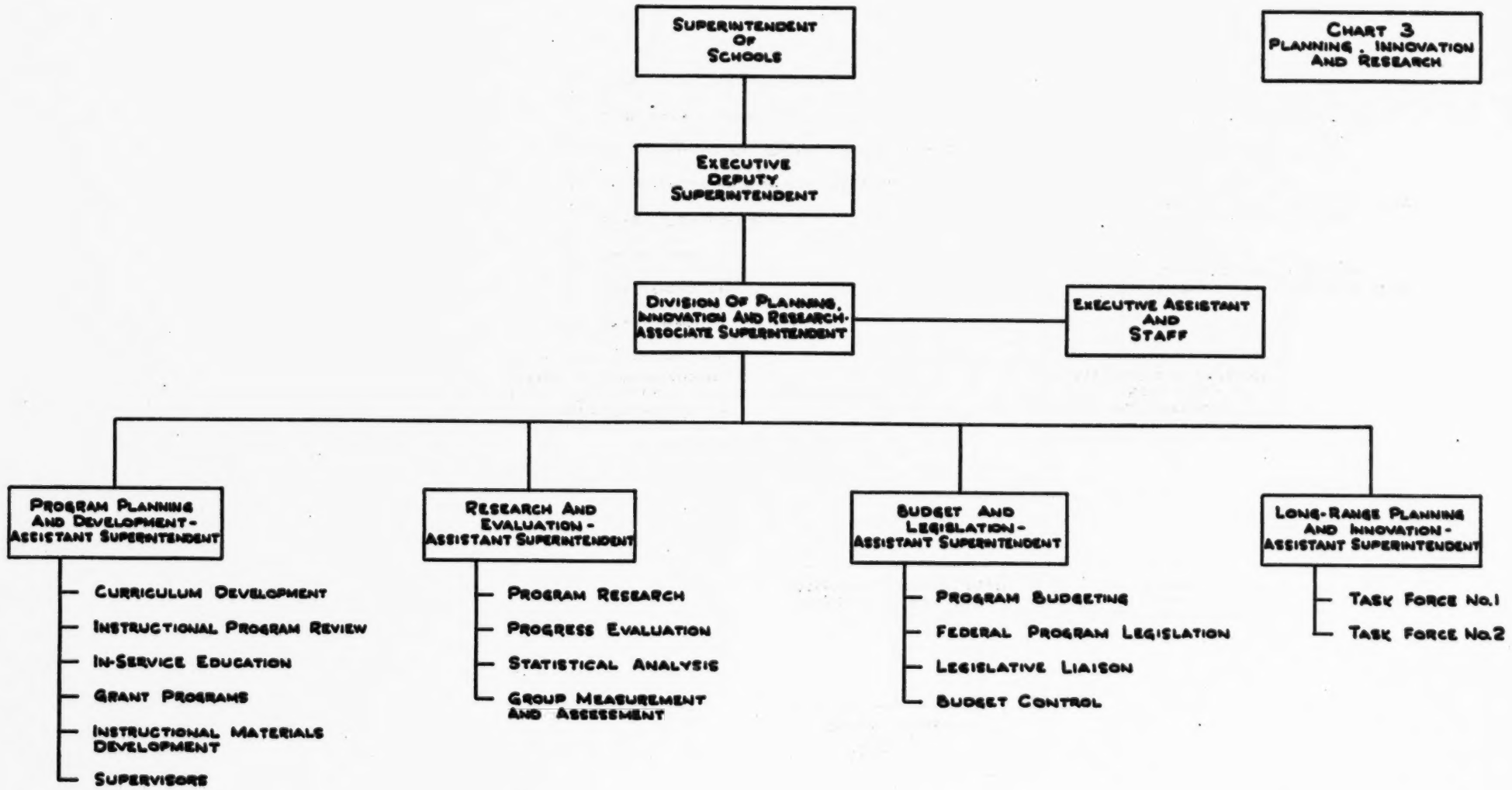
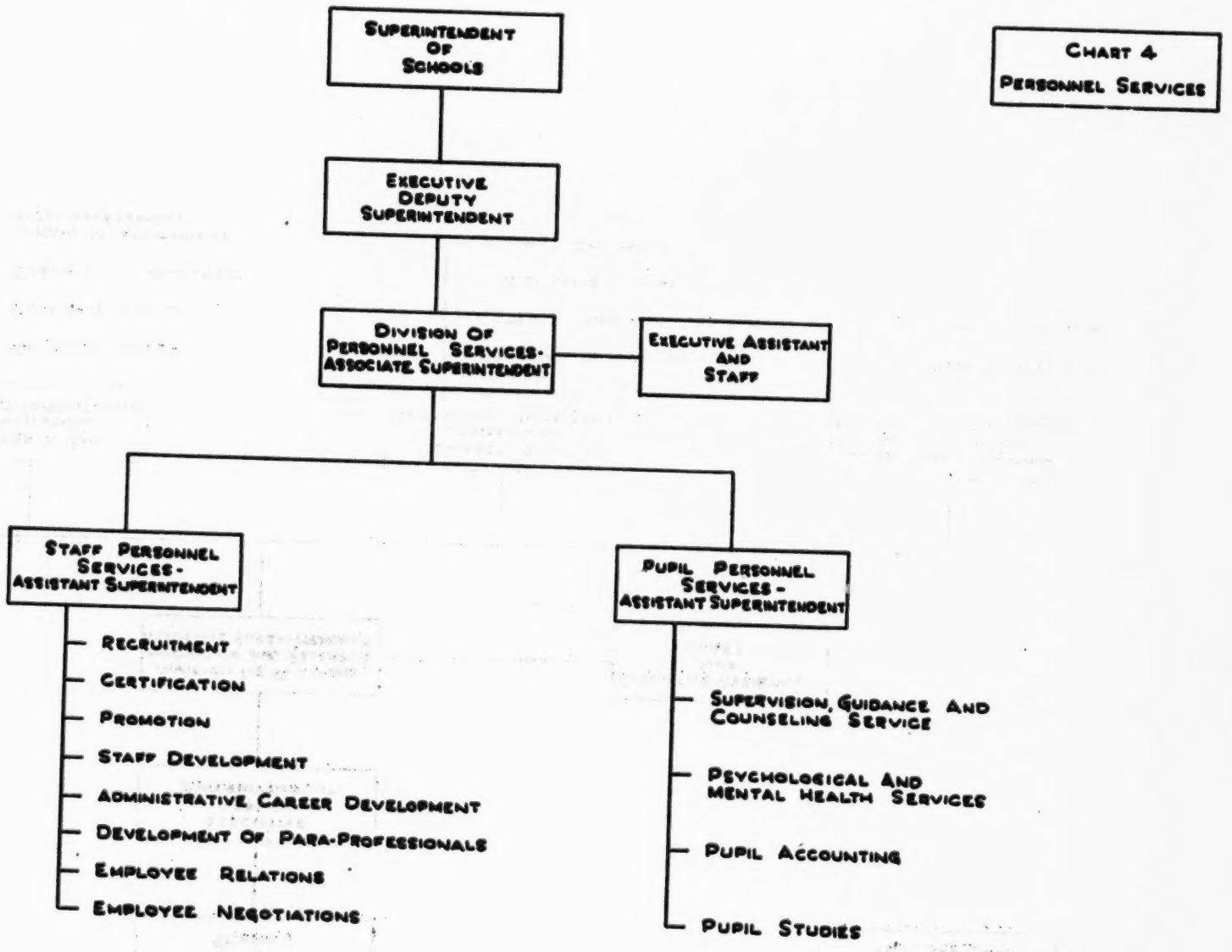


Chart 3
Planning, Innovation And Research

CHART 4
PERSONNEL SERVICES



In answering the District's critical need for recruitment and assignment of effective teachers (new and old), to educate urban children, the Department of Staff Personnel would serve the leadership function. (See Chart 4.)

Division of Administrative Services. Operating personnel at the Community Superintendent level would be assigned system-wide responsibility for coordinating three departments: Business Administration, Buildings and Grounds and Automated Information Systems. (See Chart 5.)

a. Business Administration: coordination of major purchasing programs, accounting and financial control, general food services and transportation, auditing of community school purchasing.

b. Buildings and Grounds: planning and design of new construction and remodeling, general supervision of equipment and facilities, repair and maintenance.

c. Automated Information Systems: data processing needs for all areas in the system -- instructional, research, service and business. The District schools are currently implementing the Systems Development Corporation recommendations for information management and data processing for accounting purposes -- including student, staff and fiscal records. However, the potential for computers in educational endeavors is in its infancy, so that the ultimate diversity of services is still limitless.

Executive Deputy Superintendent of Schools. Four officers would be responsible to the Executive Deputy Superintendent including the Deputy Superintendent in charge of the Division of Community School Coordination; the Associate Superintendent for Planning, Innovation and Research, the Associate Superintendent for Personnel Services, and the Associate Superintendent for Administrative Services. The Executive Deputy would be the Superintendent's chief staff officer with a span of control that would permit effective management. His responsibilities would permit him to act as an executive with respect to day-to-day operation and decision making.

Superintendent of Schools. The Superintendent would be directly responsible to the Board of Education for the operation of the school system. The lines of responsibility and the allocated authority should make it possible for him to give his full attention to the functions of the chief school administrator -- advising the Board on policy, executing Board policy, relating to the public and to Congress and providing the leadership needed to build confidence in the school system's ability to provide good education for all. The need for strong creative leadership at the top level is obvious; this organization would make it feasible.

Reorganization and Decentralization.

The proposal to reorganize the District schools has two aims: to provide an effective school organization which will facilitate teaching and learning and to decentralize control of the schools in order to shorten communication lines and to involve parents and citizens in the educational process. Efficient management has been thoroughly studied in government, industry, hospitals and school systems. There are organizational theory guidelines to apply to a school system. Decentralization, on the other hand, is still basically a grey area with very few dependable guidelines as large city systems find when they grapple with the problem. For the moment, decentralization is a label for a complex set of concepts for policy and administrative decision making.

CHART 5
ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES

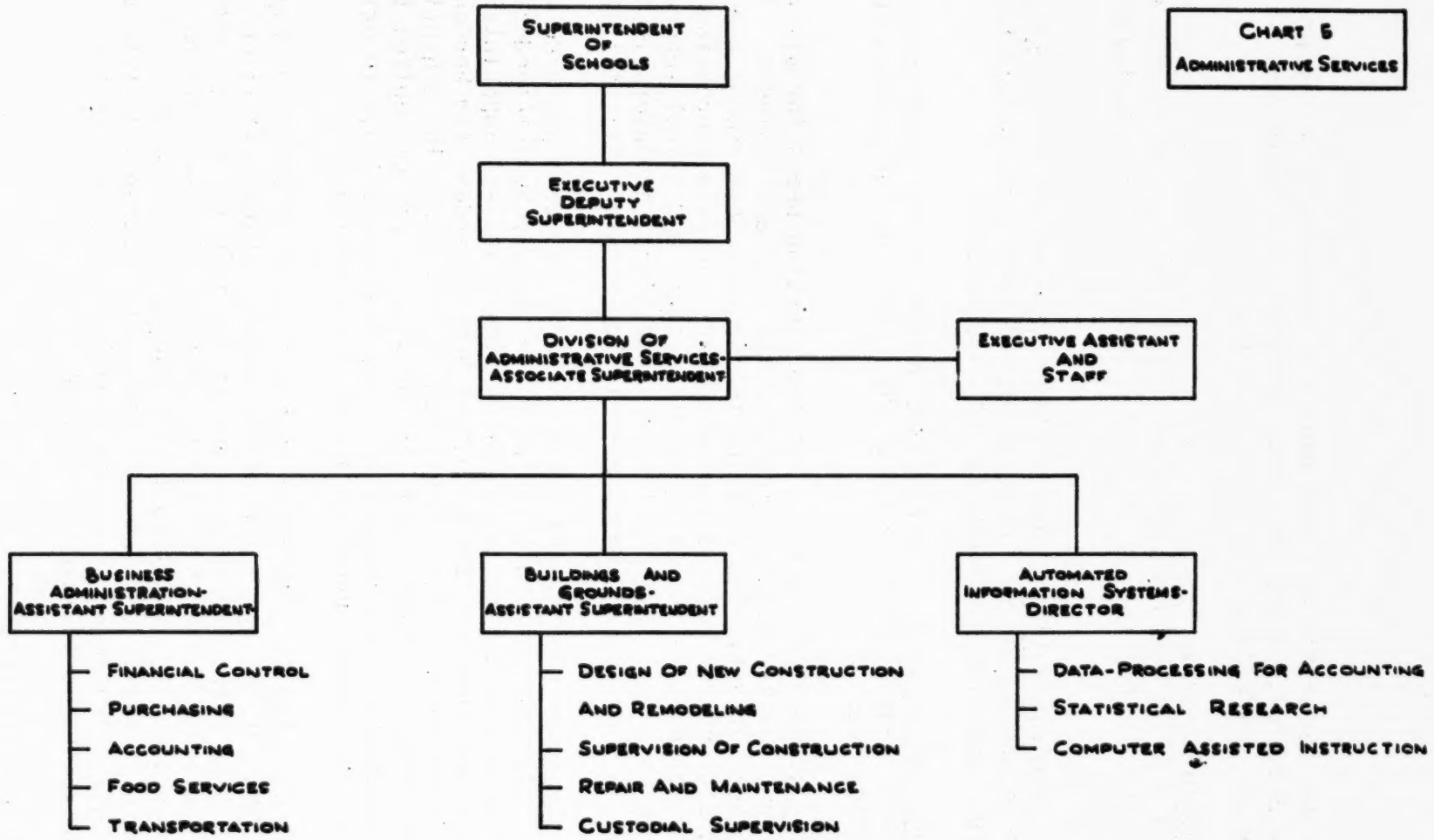
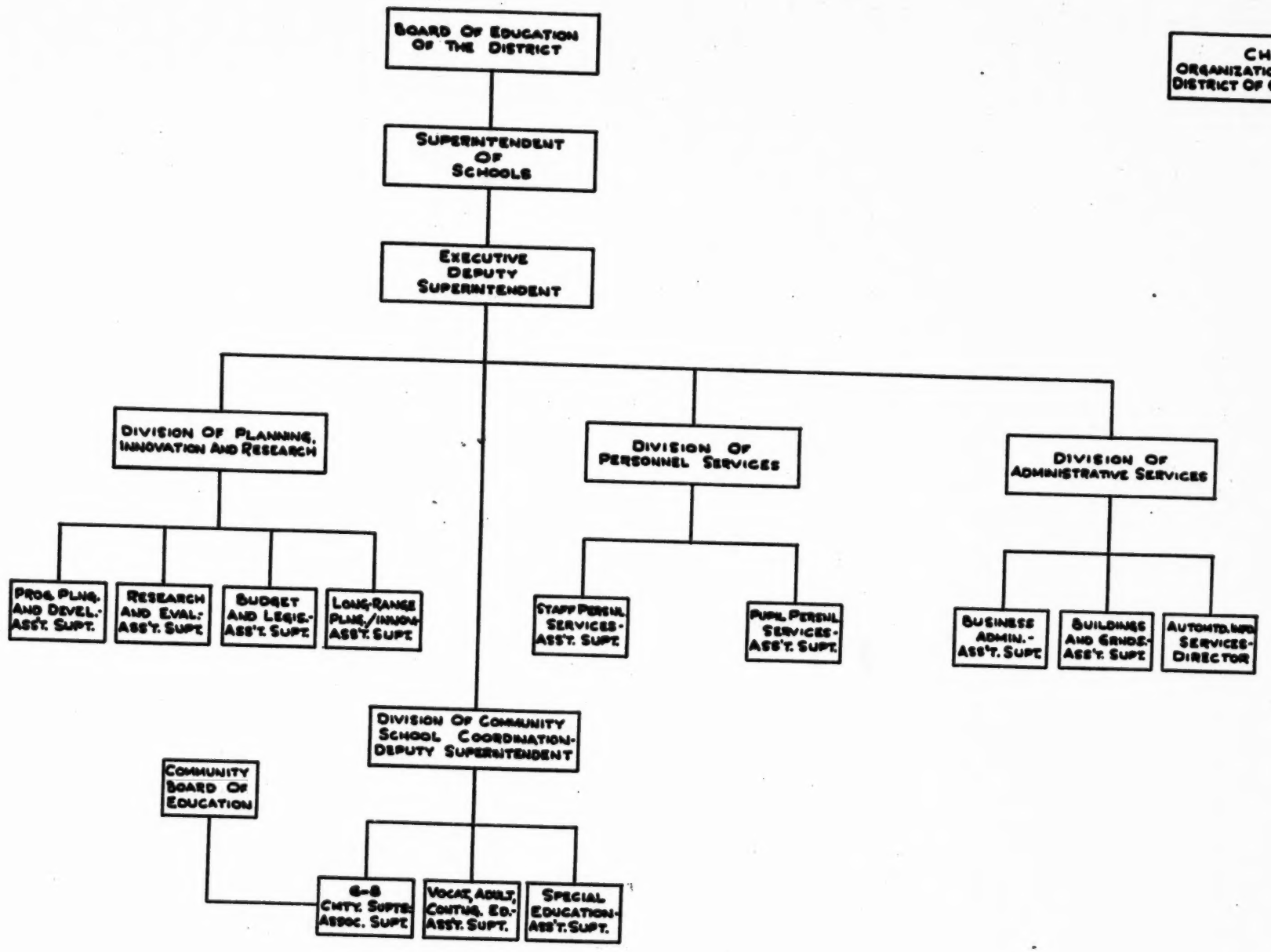


CHART 6
ORGANIZATIONAL CHART FOR DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA SCHOOLS


BOARD OF EDUCATION OF THE DISTRICT
SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS
EXECUTIVE DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT
DIVISION OF PLANNING, INNOVATION AND RESEARCH
PROG. PLNG. AND DEVEL.- ASS'T. SUPT.
RESEARCH AND EVAL.- ASS'T. SUPT.
BUDGET AND LEGIS.- ASS'T. SUPT.
LONG-RANGE PLNG./INNOV.- ASS'T. SUPT.
DIVISION OF PERSONNEL SERVICES
STAFF PERSNL SERVICES- ASS'T. SUPT.
PUPIL PERSNL SERVICES- ASS'T. SUPT.
DIVISION OF ADMINISTRATIVE SERVICES
BUSINESS ADMIN.- ASS'T. SUPT.
BUILDINGS AND GRNDS.- ASS'T. SUPT.
AUTOMTD. INFO SERVICES- DIRECTOR
DIVISION OF COMMUNITY SCHOOL COORDINATION- DEPUTY SUPERINTENDENT
COMMUNITY BOARD OF EDUCATION
6-8 CNTY. SUPTS. ASSOC. SUPT.
VOCAT, ADULT, CONTING. ED.- ASS'T. SUPT.
SPECIAL EDUCATION- ASS'T. SUPT.

The prime argument for decentralization is based upon the conviction that the educational program will be qualitatively improved to the extent that the school, parents and community are brought into a more meaningful relationship with one another. The reservations about decentralization rest on the lack of clarity concerning "more meaningful relationships." At the heart of the matter are questions involving: (1) the allocation of power and control (usually discussed in terms of "delegation of authority"); (2) the nature of accountability of individuals and groups (i.e., who is to be held responsible for the child's progress or lack thereof); (3) the appropriate areas of involvement of parents and citizens in the educational process (determination of curriculum, choice of instructional methods, selection of textbooks and other materials; appointment of principals and other staff, etc.); and (4) the authority to delegate certain functions legally assigned to the Board of Education and its administrative officers.

In the District, all of these and related issues must be resolved. There are hard questions concerning the units of a decentralized system; the boundary lines; the extent to which a unit should be a real community rather than just a geographical area. Demographically, the District can be divided into six more or less identifiable areas which have at least some of the traditional characteristics of communities. To use these as the basis for decentralization would lead naturally to relatively socioeconomically homogeneous units, ranging from an impoverished ghetto to affluent Georgetown and Northwest. Compounding the problem for the District is the need, in the process of decentralization, to build a sense of polity in subcommunities where there has been little experience in participating as the normal citizen would do in any other community in the nation. In addition, there are questions concerning the role in policy determination at both the local and system levels of the professional educator. The desire for participation and involvement in decision-making is shared by teachers and other staff members to an extent at least equal to that of parents and citizens.

The District has the beginnings of two sub-systems: the 18 schools of the Model School Division and the just developing Adams-Morgan-Antioch College project. Each of these programs has been delegated some degree of functional autonomy, encouraged to innovate and experiment with all aspects of the educational process, and freed from at least some of the restraints on self-direction found in other schools. In its two years of operation, the Model School Division has acquired experience on what it would require to become a more completely decentralized sub-system or community unit.

This recommendation for establishing six to eight Community Boards of Education and community Superintendents need not be implemented all at once. In fact, it is recommended that two or three such community units (including the Model School Division) be designated the first year and given the mandate to develop and test alternative approaches to the problems of decentralization, working out some of the problems which would inevitably occur. These pilot units should be given the support of research personnel, including social scientists, in order to establish guidelines for organizing other community units and for better understanding of the complex problems of decentralization could then be shared with other city systems moving toward the same ends. Above all, the community units should not become patterned after a common mold. To the extent that they are self-directed and experimental, they will also become competitive -- each trying to come closer to the goals of providing better quality education for all. What legal restraints do exist in the District must be explored by the Board with the Corporation Counsel. Decentralization and autonomous units do not alter the ultimate accountability of the District's Board of Education for the education of its population; it does change the means by which the Board seeks to attain its goals.

Chapter 7

The Board of Education

The Board of Education consists of nine members appointed for terms of three years by the Justices of the District Court of the United States for the District of Columbia. Members must be residents of the District for five years immediately preceding their appointment. The powers and duties of the Board are set forth in somewhat general terms in the Organic Act of 1906 which states that "the control of the public schools of the District of Columbia is hereby vested in a Board of Education" which "shall determine all questions of general policy relating to the schools."

As has been pointed, the specific duties delegated to the Board clearly limit its autonomy and make it subordinate in some areas to the District Commissioners. The reorganization on August 11, 1967 of the District Government, with a single Commissioner and Council, did not substantially alter the relationship between the Board of Education and the District Government. The Board theoretically does have power to set policy and participate actively in the development of new programs, but it has not fully exercised these powers. Until relatively recently, it functioned essentially as a confirming body for the school superintendent's recommendations.

Board Selection Procedures. The method of appointment of Board members has been criticized, for good cause, for many years. To the District judges, the task of selecting Board members has been viewed as an unnecessary nuisance to be relegated to the most junior member of the court. That judge has usually had neither the time nor the inclination to evaluate carefully the qualifications of incumbent Board members for reappointment nor the even more difficult and time-consuming job of screening new nominees. Consequently, the Court, until recently, tended to reappoint incumbents automatically rather than invest the energy necessary to produce a first-class Board. This practice has changed somewhat lately, thanks to an interested judge who did do some preliminary screening. In announcing Board appointments effective July 1, 1967, the judge urged that some other procedure be used and that the judges be relieved of this assignment.

At the time of the preparation of this report, a bill had been introduced by House District Committee Chairman John L. McMillan to give the District an elected eleven-member Board of Education. The bill was promptly endorsed by the President in letters to the House and Senate. The President noted that the "school board is the basic administrative unit for the operation of a school system. It shapes the policy for the educational program of the community's students." He then pointed out that the school Board appointments are made by judges who "have neither accountability to the community nor responsibility for the operation of the District government" and noted that they had asked to be relieved of the task. The President's recommendations were for legislation to:

-- Create an 11-member School Board. Eight members will be selected by their neighbors in as many school electoral districts. Three will be elected at large.

-- Set the following requirements for Board membership: eligibility to vote; District residents for at least three years; Residents in the school electoral district for at least one year.

-- Provide for a four-year term of office for Board members, with staggered elections.

The President went further, calling on the Board to write a charter, pledging,

-- To involve itself deeply in the affairs of the community.

-- To coordinate its efforts fully with other agencies of the city's government.

-- And, most importantly, to work closely with the new officials of the city government. Among its functions would be to submit its budget estimate to the city's chief executive so that the city's total budget can be shaped to meet its most urgent needs and priorities.

In 1938, evaluating the judicial method of appointment, the President's Advisory Committee on Education suggested three alternative plans: (1) appointment by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia; (2) appointment by the President of the United States, with the advice and consent of the Senate; (3) election by qualified voters.1/ The Committee pointed out that appointment by the District Commissioners was abandoned in 1906 in favor of the present machinery. They observed that it might be just as desirable for the Commissioners to operate the schools directly as to appoint a Board of Education for that purpose, since other services were administered through boards appointed by the Commissioners. The committee felt that that method of appointment would not contribute to separating the control of the school system from other functions of local government.

The 1938 group warned that appointment by the President would identify education as a federal function and could make Board membership "a political prize for local citizens." It foresaw possible pressures on government officials for appointments to the administrative, instructional and even custodial staffs. Furthermore, the committee thought that the President should "not be troubled with affairs of the District of Columbia more than is absolutely necessary." As for election, the committee decided that, without an elective city council and without suffrage in the District, it "would appear unnecessary and inadvisable to establish an elected board to manage the schools." The committee then went on to say that the justices were men of good will, they welcomed recommendations from individuals and groups; and the principal criticism that could be made of their appointments was that the person selected, while generally acceptable, "had not been representative of all groups in the community." Thus, the Advisory Committee ended by suggesting retention of the present system since it appeared quite "unlikely that any other plan would produce better results under the peculiar conditions in the District of Columbia." The Strayer Report in 1948 ignored the question of appointment of the Board members and focused its criticisms on certain Board activities.

It is not clear what the best solution to the particular problem is, although flaws in the present system have become apparent. There has been discussion of an elected school board for a good many years but, aside from the advantage of heightening community representation, election itself is no guarantee of higher-quality Board members. A recent study of composition of school boards indicates that elite school boards in big city systems have run into fewer difficulties, particularly with respect to integration

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1/ The Advisory Committee on Education, Public Education in the District of Columbia. Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1938. pp. 53-54.

crises, than elected school boards.[2/] It is not certain whether this is because elite school boards are composed of better politicians or whether they are actually doing a better job of responding to the needs of the community than elected school boards, or both.

Whatever the choice, it does seem that new institutional mechanisms are necessary to ensure nominees of high caliber. This involves not only the screening of candidates but somehow inducing qualified individuals to become candidates and serve. It has already been recommended that the local community school boards be elected and election seems assured in the near future. The McMillan Bill for an elected school board, now pending in Congress, has merit, providing that there are methods for persuading qualified, high-caliber candidates to campaign and run for election.

Board Representativeness. A frequent criticism of the Board is its "lack of representation of the community," particularly of the lower middle-class and lower-class Negro. Analyses of Board membership over the years showed that traditionally, three members of the Board were women and three were Negro. It was not until July 1967 that the Board had a Negro majority for the first time. It is possible that a school board elected by wards or districts would solve the issue of representation of the community, although the present five-four majority approximates the Negro-white proportion in the District. The basic question of representativeness is related to the criteria applied. Presently, the main concern is with the Negro-white balance. Representativeness in other communities has involved religious, ethnic, socioeconomic, geographic balance as well. Should consideration be given to representativeness on these bases in the District? Should Board members be selected on basis of ability to represent the entire community or only selected portions? If the elections are on a "non-partisan" basis -- does this mean not affiliated with a political party? The first requirement must be high quality, intelligent commitment to education; if representation can be achieved in terms of other criteria without sacrificing this quality, well and good.

The Board and Policy Making. For many years the Board has been perceived as a "rubber stamp." The reason for this reputation for lack of effectiveness in policy making in the past was probably due to the fact that in most matters involving important decisions -- for example, the development of the budget -- the school administration, whether consciously or not, has insulated itself from the Board. For instance, although the Board considers and approves the budget requests it forwards to the District government, the proposed budget is seldom presented to it until shortly before the deadline for its submission to the District government. This usually gives the Board only a few days to engage in its most important policy discussions of the year. Under these circumstances, the Board is unable to do very much more than approve with slight modifications the administration's programs. Further evidence of the Board's ceremonial role is derived from testimony before the District Commissioners and the Congress: here, the President of the Board usually reads a statement outlined or prepared by the school administration, while the substantive defense and testimony is given by the Superintendent of Schools and his top aides.

The District pays lip service to the classic, deceptively simple theoretical distinction: the Board of Education is the policy-making agency for the school system and the Superintendent of Schools executes this policy. The formula has been constantly reiterated but rarely enacted. As studies have pointed out, there is no real consensus with regard to what school boards do or with regard to what they should do.

2/ Minar, D. W., "The Community Basis of Conflict in School System Politics," American Sociological Review, 31 (December 1966) pp. 822-835.

Part of the overlap is that policy is often worked out indirectly in terms of program budget decisions and the day-to-day administrative decisions and only occasionally brought to the Board by the Superintendent of Schools. Johnson's study of 78 California School Districts found that superintendents, "through control of agenda and information, (1) define and assign priorities to district educational problems, (2) define alternative solutions, and (3) choose between the alternatives."3/ In most instances, he found that the boards simply approved the courses of action recommended by the superintendents. The point is, of course, that the superintendent is in a position to exert considerable power over policy decisions and good relationships are indispensible between the board of education and its superintendent. In the past year, this confidence faltered, judging by the five to four vote approving a new three year contract for Dr. Hansen.

Hopefully, in the appointment of a new Superintendent, the basic issues regarding roles and relationships will have been aired if not entirely resolved. It is unlikely that the problem will be completely resolved with the appointment of a new Superintendent since the new relationships will require different attitudes and behavior on the part of present Board members. The present membership has developed a style of behavior and a view of their assignment and mandate as indicated below that could bring it into direct conflict with the administrative responsibilities of the new Superintendent. And, the new Superintendent could find it difficult to implement key policies in a program he supports.

Public Board Meetings. One of the fundamental snags in the present operations of the Board arises from the interpretation of the law that, "All meetings whatsoever of the Board shall be open to the public, except committee meetings dealing with the appointment of teachers." Sound as is the rationale behind the law, (the public does have the right to be kept informed of what the Board is doing and why), open meetings can, in some instances, lower the quality of policy decision-making. Obviously, all actual decisions must be during the open Board meetings. However, to substantiate decisions, there must be a designated opportunity for the Superintendent to bring problems before the Board of Education, to present alternative solutions, to produce data and rationale supporting a particular position and to explore all of this before taking a decision. The result is likely to be more intelligent policy-making and voting. What really happens is a good deal of informal caucusing and vote-gathering prior to the Board meeting, defensive justifications of one's vote rather than explanation of issues, a hardening of opinions and of posture.

What is missing from the present Board procedures is an opportunity for the Board of Education to educate itself: to find out what is going on in the District schools and in the nation elsewhere, to talk about ideas and developments without necessarily committing itself to immediate action. An informed public is an absolute necessity; a Board of Education forever in a goldfish bowl, never free to ponder alternatives, to educate itself about its job, to combine long-term planning with immediate pressures, will inevitably plunge into recurrent crises, while the press and the public judge individual members rather than policies.

This is not to argue against open Board meetings, but rather to support closed sessions at appropriate times for specific purposes. For instance, in connection with this Study, the Board attended a series of seven seminar sessions convened at the invitation of the Study Director to hear one of the consultants discuss a basic issue, such as school board-administrative relationships, centralization-decentralization of schools, school

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3/ Johnson, Irwin T., "Problems Inherent in Big City Boards of Education." Paper prepared for American Education Research Association Symposium, February 18, 1967.

finance and ability grouping. Seminar issues were clarified by research evidence and experience, without reference to the District schools except during the question-discussion period. These sessions were not geared to policy determination but rather to self-education. The regular attendance of the Board members and their whole-hearted participation suggest that they found these sessions useful in furthering their understanding of major concerns from national perspective. No press was present. These were convened not as meetings, but as invitational conferences. It is dubious that the public suffered from the privacy of these seminars designed as job-training for the Board of Education members. On the contrary, these sessions appeared to have served the public interest.

The task force recommends that the Board each year undertake a series of Board of Education Seminars for the purpose of self-education and in-service training. These should regularly involve certain key administrative personnel and include other professional staff members for particular sessions. Specialists from within, as well as outside the District schools, could provide seminar discussion leadership.

It is also recommended that the Board of Education seek a different legal interpretation of the mandate that "all meetings.....shall be open to the public." If a literal application prevails, then the Board should seek legislative amendment to permit executive sessions and informal discussions. These sessions would be purely deliberative and provide an opportunity for probing exploration and study, presentation of alternatives and examination of issues. Needless to say, all decision-making and all discussion of a current decision must remain open to the public.

The Board rules call for stated meetings to be held on the third Wednesday of each month at 2:00 o'clock, unless otherwise ordered by the Board. Special meetings can be called by the president or in response to a request from three members, with the purpose of the special meeting stated in the notice.

The Strayer Report observed:

> The work of the Board of Education as revealed through the minutes of the Board covers a large area of administrative detail which is also recorded in exhausted completeness. The extent to which these items are incorporated in minute detail in the permanent official record of the Board presents a reasonably accurate index of the limited time and attention given to the consideration of matters of major educational policy. This has apparently been a continuing trend over an extended period as a result of which this tendency has increased rather than diminished. Such a traditional concept of the function of the Board of Education is difficult to correct. The fact that the business of the Board is carried on through the committee system of organization adds momentum to the traditional procedures which need early and in some cases radical readjustment. 1/

Much the same could be written of the present Board meetings. An outside observer is struck by the fact that at every stated meeting, not only are the Superintendent and his deputy present (as would be expected) but all eleven assistant superintendents. On the outside chance that a problem will arise in an individual's area of responsibility, this practice ties up administrative time which might be spent more profitably.

1/ Strayer, George D. The Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Washington: US Government Printing Office, 1949. p.6.

The order of business is stated in the Rules of the Board of Education and begins with official recognition of communications to the Board and the list of speakers to address the Board. At many meetings this can be a time-consuming activity, even though each speaker supposedly is restricted to five minutes. The Board is somewhat inconsistent in its handling of speakers: sometimes there is no discussion, sometimes there is lengthy questioning, and sometimes the staff is directed forthwith to take certain actions. Again, in a situation filled with communication failures, one hesitates to criticize a procedure whereby the public may be heard. Hopefully, if local boards of education are established and elected, they will provide a genuine forum for public opinion and meaningful response by authorities. In the meantime, the Board will have to sharpen its listening skills and establish and abide by consistent ground-rules for handling and responding to communications and speakers. At the moment, individual member reaction is the norm.

Standing Committees. The Board operates through a series of nine standing committees, designated by its president. These include: Finance, Legislation, Rules, Personnel, Buildings, Grounds and Equipment, Student Activities, Health and Special Education Services, Complaints, Appeals and Employee Relations and District of Columbia Teachers College.

Board rules spell out the duties of each of these standing committees. The Strayer Report considered the standing committees and urged their abolition. Nationally, there is undoubtedly a trend away from such committees. A U.S. Office of Education survey in 1958-1959 found that 53.2 percent of school districts with an enrollment of 25,000 or more had no standing committees and, of those that did have such committees, 56.0 percent listed no more than four. The most common such committee was on finance.

The weakness of the standing committee is its tendency to cause overlapping of responsibility, repetitive discussion and confusion. Many of the standing committees meet just prior to the regular Board meetings. Members other than those on the committee will drop in, listen to and even participate in the discussion, and sit back while a vote is taken. The same debate may recur later in the regular stated meeting when the standing committee reports, or the total Board may automatically endorse recommendations of the committee.

In his analysis of the origin of the standing committees, Charles E. Reeves pointed out that the duties of most standing committees were essentially administrative and advisory, predating a superintendent. Currently such committees often step on the heels of the superintendent and his staff. He observed, "There are no functions for such committees to perform that are not the Board's legislative and policy-making functions or the Superintendent's administrative and advisory functions."1/

A major share of the work of the Complaints, Appeals and Employee Relations Committee has been with teacher grievances. With the election of a single bargaining agent, the Washington Federation of Teachers, a new era of grievance-handling machinery will come into operation as part of the contract being negotiated. A separate special Board committee is involved in these negotiations. The present procedures are clearly unsatisfactory and the Board of Education's standing committee is not constituted to handle the problems faced. The task force recommends that the Board of Education abandon its standing committees and operate as a committee-of-the-whole, using special committees only for particular assignments.

1/ Reeves, Charles E., School Boards, Their Status, Functions and Activities. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1964. p. 121.

A Board Policy Manual. The Board operates under Rules of the Board of Education of the District of Columbia, a document vague in some respects and overly detailed in others. During the past year, the Board found itself involved in procedural wrangles that led to the employment of a professional parliamentarian. To the outside observer, compliance with Roberts Rules of Order was not at the heart of the Board's procedural problems as much as an opportunity to communicate clearly. The formation of real but fluctuating coalitions among Board members; the attributing of motives to one another; and the frequent discussions of personalities rather than issues -- suggest the need for orientation and in-service training of Board members to their roles and responsibilities.

Lacking is a loose-leaf volume of Policies and Procedures for the District of Columbia to serve as a comprehensive, readily-revised compilation of the major policy decisions and directives of the Board of Education on record now.

It is recommended that the Board have staff compile such Board Policies and Procedures from an examination of past minutes, directives and all other sources. Such a manual of policies would equip the Board with a complete history of policy actions and would enable them to distinguish between administrative (staff sphere) actions as against legislative (Board sphere). Such a manual would help orient the Board to areas in which policy formulation and revision are needed. Once prepared and indexed, a manual could provide the Board with an ongoing source of information concerning policy decisions made by the Board. In all likelihood, existing automated information retrieval techniques would facilitate the preparation of such a manual and would enable the Board to keep the manual up to date.

Board Minutes. The Board of Education has a stenotypist present for all stated Board meetings. The stenotypist provides the Board's Executive Secretary with a verbatim transcript of the entire meeting. This transcript is then used as the basis for preparing official minutes which are then duplicated and distributed to Board members for their use. Board members have access to the complete transcript as well. The Board minutes apparently conform to legal requirements and, to a lesser extent, to the needs of the Board for decision-making. Generally, the minutes appear to be complete, adequately indexed and readily available.

It is recommended that the Board of Education explore the possibilities of applymodern information retrieval techniques to its minutes. Such a system could assist with preparation of a manual of policies and actions. Further, it is recommended that Board actions and policies be given wide dissemination to the entire professional staff so that they will be informed first-hand of decisions taken.

Decision-Making Information. Serving as they do without pay and with virtually no supporting staff, Board members really do not have time to do more than respond to the day-by-day demands of their position. Under these circumstances, it is difficult for the Board to carry out its main function, policy formulation with the kind of information readily available for the decisions it must make. To provide the Board with vital research and data, the District schools should initiate, staff and fund a Research and Development Department. There is little point in the Board setting up its own research division to gather the data it needs for better decision making. A Department of Planning, Innovation and Research could provide the Board of Education with position papers, data analyses and whatever other information it requested regarding particular programs, proposals or issues. When a policy or an issue is to come before the Board, members could request comprehensive and objective information on the District schools and those across the nation as well. The department should have access to ERIC (Education Research Information Center) documents. ERIC's network of 13 clearinghouses, each responsible for a different topic, makes dissemination of information easily accessible. Together with

its own data bank and research information, the Board could then have available objective analyses and alternatives on which to make intelligent policy decisions. The school could draw more fully on Washington's good research-reference facilities.

The need for research and reference material should also be considered in terms of the prior recommendation for executive sessions or discussions at which time various alternative proposals and issues can be presented by the Superintendent and his staff and explored thoroughly. By today's custom, the Superintendent of Schools presents a proposal and his supportive information. This invokes some exchange of questions and points of view; a vote is taken, and the matter is resolved. Were the Board able to have prior discussion and exploration based on research and consideration, the decision-making process would be far more precise.

The question of whether or not a school department is capable of providing the necessary objective analysis or whether the Board must have its own staff make studies for it hinges on the confidence of the Board in its professional staff. If the Board feels that the data presented inevitably will be biased to support the Superintendent's or the administrative staff's position, this would suggest that it replace that division with personnel in whom it does have confidence. For one thing, the staff that would be required to undertake anything beyond a basic library search would have to be a large one requiring funds that could be used to develop a good research and evaluation section for the system as a whole. The task force does not see the need for a Board staff to conduct independent studies. The Board should not duplicate research and reference resources.

It is recommended that the Board of Education staff be enlarged to include research assistants or Board aides and additional secretarial help. The chief function of the research assistants or aides would be to contact appropriate individuals and departments within the school system, requesting and following up on requests for particular information or analyses Board members need. Increased staff and funds would be needed for this staff but its functions would be quite different from the research and evaluation with the newly created division for that purpose. Further, it is recommended that assistants and secretarial staff be assigned to the Board of Education rather than to individual Board members.

Community Relations and Public Information. As has been pointed out, the Board's image in the community is not a strong, positive one. Nevertheless, its actions in the past year should have erased its image as a rubber stamp for the Superintendent. The Board receives unusually complete coverage in the newspapers, television and radio. However, the Board of Education seldom speaks as a unit, but rather through its individual members. Having no public information officer, the Board rarely issues statements or releases to public information media. Instead, each of the Board members is considered fair game for reporters, whose responsibility is, of course, to get the story. Some members of the Board are accessible and more willing to respond to questions or make statements than others. The press and radio have identified Board members with changing coalitions -- new and old, conservative and radical, representing the common people, the affluent and the elite.

The public is entitled to information about its schools and its educational programs. It is entitled to a strong public relations program, not in the sense of marketing or salesmanship but rather in terms of information that deepens its understanding and insights into the education of its children. The District of Columbia needs badly such a public information program, not only for the community, but also for the District government, Congress and any other concerned group or agency.

It is recommended that such an office be established and staffed to produce complete and authoritative information to various "publics," through mass communication media, through various meetings and through face-to-face exchanges. If local school boards are established as recommended, each being served by an assistant for community affairs, this office could handle a good part of the local information load. However, an adequate public relations and information program for the District school system as a whole is an absolute necessity. Secondly, this office could strengthen internal communication among professional and ancillary staff, misunderstanding or lack of information amongst professional personnel. The Washington Federation of Teachers and the District of Columbia Educational Association both produce their own monthly publications but these do not serve the needs of the system adequately. The Superintendent's Circular is another restricted organ of information. Finally, a skillful information officer should respond to requests from Congress and other official agencies. The present practice appears to be for Congress to get much of its information from daily press accounts which, if they seem interesting enough, are then followed up by one of the legislative aides. Because Congress plays such a critical role in the education affairs of the District and because of the schools' relationships with the District government, protocol suggests that the Board should issue information as a unit, with individuals refraining from public previews of Board actions.

Board Compensation and Reimbursement. The question of compensation and/or reimbursement of Board of Education members has been raised again with the bills pending before Congress for an elected school board. One proposal is to pay Board members $2400 per year. There are arguments supporting payment or reimbursement for expenses or both, or neither. The Board members obviously spend a good deal of time in meetings and related activities. They are out-of-pocket for the expenses incurred while doing Board business. A case can easily be made for reimbursement of actual expenses of Board members. The arguments for and against compensation for Board members are more numerous but less obvious. There is a question as to whether payment would enable persons of lower socio-economic levels to serve on the Board, assuming they cannot afford to do so now. Board members do suffer a certain personal financial loss, which is unfair. Some argue the question of compensation in terms of its amount. The proposed sum of $2400 is, of course, a token payment and hardly "just compensation." Whether the decision is for compensation or reimbursement the amount should not be large enough to warrant full-time assignments which would inevitably involve the Board in day-to-day administrative operations.

The task force recommends that the Board be reimbursed for actual expenses incurred directly or indirectly as part of Board duties. To avoid the need for submitting requests for reimbursement, it might be possible to provide a flat amount. Judging from other large-city school board practices, $2400 is probably a reasonable figure.

In Summary, the Board of Education is not yet a Board but rather a group of nine individuals with different perceptions of their roles and relationships. Across the nation, similar confusion hampers officials in implementing the general principle that school boards are the policy makers. Since the policies they make usually stem from the proposals and recommendations of the Superintendent of Schools, part of the problem stems from the relationships between any board and its chief administrative officer. But even with a new Superintendent of Schools, Washington's Board will have to revise its ways of working with its professional staff.

The present Board operates intuitively, not from any clear analysis or perception of its role. New Board members are installed on July 1 with little or no orientation to their joint or personal responsibilities and functions. Given the rules of the Board of Education, one would find relatively little guidance about a member's behavior.

This has not prevented Board members from acting but each has acted in terms of what he believes is good for his "constituency," which is less than all the children of the District. Even an elected board or a board appointed by some new procedure would still have to work out its own roles and responsibilities as a prime move toward regaining the confidence of the community, the professional staff and Congress. If the Board is indeed to "shape the policy for the education program of the community's students" a different means of selection or election will not automatically improve the school board's functioning or performance. This will develop from the Board's taking the major actions discussed below:

1. Appointing as its chief administrative officer a Superintendent of Schools in whom it has confidence.
2. Permitting the Superintendent to build a leadership team of his own.
3. Preparing a manual of policies and procedures which provides the Board member with ready access to past decisions and guidance for taking new action.
4. Requiring in-service education for its own members as to their roles, functions and responsibilities.
5. Conducting a continuing seminar on educational issues and problems, using resource persons from within and without the system.
6. Developing a strong long-range planning unit as part of the school's reorganization.
7. Altering the Board's operating procedures to ensure prior study of educational issues and problems, rather than voting on them after hearing the Superintendent's reports.
8. Adding research assistants and secretarial staff to enable Board members to handle correspondence and communications and to request information regarding issues and problems prior to the meeting at which a vote is to be taken.
9. Abolishing standing committees and instituting meetings of the Board as a committee of the whole, supplementing these with special committees. The possible exception might be a standing committee for finance.
10. Channeling complete and authoritative information to the public as the Board of Education and not as separate individuals.
11. Providing some reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses for Board members and/or compensating them.

The press now speaks of the "new Board." The Board of Education must now become that new board by so ordering its own affairs and procedures that it directs and catalyzes the staff of this key system in the creation of a new kind of public education.

Chapter 8

Integration in the District of Columbia Schools[1/]

At the close of the 1966-67 school year, the proportion of Negro students in the District schools was over 90 percent and still rising. The percentage of white students declined in the 20 year period, 1947-1966, from 54.1 to 9.2 percent, as shown in Table 8-1.

Table 8-1

Percentages by Race in the Public Schools, Fall 1947 to Fall 1966

Fall of Year	White	Negro
1947	54.1	45.9
1948	52.6	47.4
1949	51.6	48.4
1950	49.3	50.7
1951	47.6	52.4
1952	45.8	54.2
1953	43.2	56.8
1954[1/]	39.2	60.8
1955	36.0	64.0
1956	32.0	68.0
1957	28.8	71.2
1958	25.9	74.1
1959	23.3	76.7
1960	20.3	79.7
1961	18.5	81.5
1962	16.6	83.4
1963	14.3	85.7
1964	12.4	87.6
1965	10.6	89.4
1966	9.2	90.8

1/ The first membership, by race, after desegregation

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

1/ Dr. John H. Fischer prepared the report which provided the basis for this chapter.

Table 8-2

Total Enrollments and Total Number of Negro Pupils in the District of Columbia and Four Adjoining County School Systems, 1955-1966

School Year	District of Columbia			Arlington County,Va.			Fairfax County,Va.			Montgomery Cty.,Md.			Prince George's Cty.,Md.		
	Negro		Total	Negro		Total	Negro		Total			Total			Total
	No.	Pct.	No.	No.	Pct.	No.	No.	Pct.	No.	No.	Pct.	No.	No.	Pct.	No.
1955-56	68,033	64.0	106,301	1,303	6.1	21,363	1,895	5.7	33,237	2,927	5.6	52,267	6,451	12.9	50,004
1956-57	72,972	68.0	107,312	1,424	6.4	22,255	2,039	5.3	38,467	2,989	5.2	57,473	6,777	12.7	53,365
1957-58	78,459	71.3	110,041	1,562	6.8	22,975	2,110	4.9	43,055	3,033	4.8	63,191	7,153	12.5	57,228
1958-59	83,733	74.1	113,030	1,641	7.1	23,118	2,020	4.2	48,088	3,111	4.5	69,141	7,451	12.2	61,077
1959-60	89,451	76.7	116,587	1,749	7.4	23,519	2,115	3.9	54,134	3,161	4.2	74,601	7,992	12.2	65,298
1960-61	96,751	79.7	121,448	2,033	8.1	25,207	2,186	3.6	59,914	3,230	4.0	80,741	8,399	12.1	69,627
1961-62	103,804	81.6	127,268	2,271	8.8	25,772	2,274	3.5	65,863	3,336	3.9	86,256	8,416	11.2	74,951
1962-63	110,759	83.3	132,900	2,420	9.2	26,394	2,420	3.3	72,264	3,498	3.8	92,338	9,389	11.5	81,937
1963-64	117,915	85.6	137,718	2,436	9.0	26,972	2,557	3.2	80,717	3,610	3.7	97,620	10,209	11.3	90,044
1964-65	123,906	87.6	141,396	2,442	9.1	26,708	2,480	2.8	88,390	3,545	3.5	102,020	11,503	11.2	102,504
1965-66	128,843	89.5	144,016	2,656	10.1	26,178	2,500	2.6	94,448	3,778	3.6	106,206	12,679	11.2	113,260

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

In the post-desegregation eleven year period 1955-1966, the proportion of Negro pupils in the District schools climbed from 64.0 to 89.5 percent. During these same years, nearby Arlington County, with the smallest school enrollment, rose from 6.1 to 10.1 percent. The proportion of Negro students in the other three adjoining suburban counties -- Fairfax, Montgomery and Prince George's -- all decreased. The total enrollment increase for Arlington County was under 5,000 for these years (21,363 to 26,178) with the percentage of Negroes growing from 6.1 to 10.1 percent. Fairfax County, on the other hand, almost trebled its total enrollment (33,237 to 94,448) while its Negro pupil membership remained relatively stable (1,895 to 2,500) and the percentage decreasing from 5.7 to 2.6 percent. Montgomery County more than doubled its enrollment (52,267 to 106,206) but its Negro pupil population only increased from 2,927 to 3,778, so that the percentage of Negroes decreased from 5.6 to 3.6. Prince George's County Negro pupil enrollments doubled (6,451 to 12,679) but the total membership more than doubled (50,004 to 113,260) in the same period and the percentage was stable (12.9 to 11.2 percent). The percentage changes over these years is shown in Table 8-2.

During this period of increased pupil populations in the District and its suburbs, the total number of pupils enrolled in private and parochial schools showed a slight decrease. The proportion of Negro pupils in these schools rose sharply (2,537 to 7,694) so that by 1965, Negro D. C. residents represented 47.4 percent of the enrollments in independent and parochial schools. Data are not available for the number of pupils of either race who reside in the District but attend private or parochial schools outside of Washington. However, this population is judged to be relatively small. (See Table 8-3.)

Table 8-3

Total Number and Number of Negro Elementary and Secondary Pupils
(D. C. Residents Only)
Enrolled in Private and Parochial Schools, 1955-1965[1/]

Fall of Year	Total Number Pupils	Negro Pupils	
		Number	Percent
1955	16,411	2,537	15.5
1956	16,565	2,834	17.2
1957	16,695	3,442	20.6
1958	17,170	4,098	23.9
1959	16,998	4,504	26.5
1960	16,959	4,925	29.0
1961	16,450	5,090	30.9
1962	16,852	5,801	34.4
1963	16,708	6,555	39.2
1964	16,741	7,261	43.4
1965	16,245	7,694	47.4

1/ Does not include pupils at Children's Center (Laurel, Md.), Junior Village, Pupils tutored and those residents of D. C. attending private or parochial schools outside the District of Columbia

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

By October 1966, 20 schools were more than 50 percent white and 163 were more than half Negro. Of the predominantly Negro schools 28 were 100 percent Negro and an additional 111, between 90-99 percent non-white. (See Table 8-4.)

Table 8-4

Distribution of Schools More Than Half Negro or More Than Half White, October 1966

Percentage	More than Half Negro	More than Half White
50% - 59%	3	1
60% - 69%	1	2
70% - 79%	5	4
90% - 89%	15	5
90% - 99%	111	7
100%	28	1
Total	163	20

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

Racial imbalance and resegregation are the facts that the District Schools face with respect to its population. When a school system is more than 90 percent pupils of one race, to speak in any ordinary sense of integration, desegregation, or racial balance on a system-wide scale would be pointless. Except for the possibility of transferring a few hundred Negro pupils from schools east of Rock Creek Park to others located west of the park, no change in pupil distribution could make any significant difference in the racial composition of individual schools or of the system as a whole. Devices that might further integration in other cities are now largely irrelevant in Washington.

However difficult the present situation may be, the fundamental task of the Washington schools is the same as that of every other American school system: to provide for every child, whatever his race, education of a quality that will enable him to make the most of himself and to take his place as a free person in an open society. There are enough scattered success stories to demonstrate that some minority children have gained such an education in racially isolated schools, but the evidence is overwhelming that for most minority children segregated schools offer a poor start toward realizing the promise of America. In vast numbers of cases, the principal effect of these schools has been to retard learning, discourage confidence, and weaken ambition.

De Facto Segregation and Education. For the foreseeable future, the only reasonable assumption is that the racial composition of the Washington public schools will remain about as it is. Exchanges with neighboring districts and other approaches to integration should be promoted vigorously and every new possibility should be pursued, but none of the improvements now in sight can change the basic problem. Until broad-range metropolitan solutions can be devised and put into effect, the task of the board, the staff, the community and the federal government will be to provide first-class education in a school system where all but a small percentage of the students are Negroes and a substantial proportion are disadvantaged by poverty and its associated handicaps.

Given these facts, what options are now available and what new possibilities might be developed to enable the Washington schools to counteract the effects of racial isolation, discrimination, and poverty? The entire survey report is a response to that query but the purpose of this section is to focus more particularly upon the educational implications of massive de facto segregation. Important and respectable studies on the effect of racial isolation on students have been completed, but the evidence is still inconclusive. On one point, though, there is little disagreement. As public schools have been conducted throughout the United States, those with student bodies totally or predominantly Negro are almost invariably considered by both races to be inferior to schools enrolling only white children.

Despite the evidence and the beliefs, it would certainly be premature and probably would be a mistake to conclude that no Negro child can possibly obtain an acceptable education in an all-Negro school. On the other hand, it would be absurd to deny or to ignore the special problems that a racially isolated school faces in preparing its pupils for life in an open society. If children are to obtain reliable knowledge about people whose backgrounds differ from their own, if they are to learn to respect rather than to distrust difference, if they are to appreciate the commonalities that unite as well as the distinctions that divide humanity, those who attend segregated schools must obviously receive special help.

This is not to say that racial integration is the only criterion for judging a school. The effectiveness of any school is due to a number of factors and they are well-known. Wherever there are first-class teachers, imaginative curricula, carefully selected books and materials, and physical arrangements that stimulate as well as shelter, it is safe to predict a productive school. But students of all ages learn from their classmates quite as surely as they do from their teachers. The composition of the student body makes a substantial difference. To leave that factor wholly to chance is no more sensible than it would be to assign teachers or select textbooks at random. Integration may not be essential, but it is highly desirable. The point is finally simple: whatever other good qualities a school may possess, it will be even better, for the purposes of democratic education, if it is integrated.

So far as the children now in the Washington schools are concerned, it is in one sense too late and in another too early to expect that many of them will be able to profit from city-wide integration. To prevent the massive racial segregation that now plagues Washington, it would have been necessary to begin to take the necessary steps a generation ago. It is, on the other hand, too soon to hope that the present school generation will enjoy the benefits of the metropolitan approach that is now the only conceivable answer.

It is not too early to begin. Washington is a classic example of the situation in which many large American cities now find themselves. It has resulted from the unnatural but customary distinction between the area legally defined as the city -- the de jure city, and the total metropolitan area which is the city de facto. That no part of the total entity could maintain itself without the other parts, on which it daily depends, is a self-evident truth. Yet, in virtually every such area, the political sub-divisions, the school districts, and a miscellaneous collection of other public agencies proceed as though their governmental separation were based on actual social and economic independence.

One aspect of the natural interdependence of metropolitan areas can be seen in the population distribution patterns that have developed over the years. The concentration of families of lower income and minority groups in central cities is often interpreted as indicating a significant change in the proportion of such families in

the total metropolitan area and in their relation to the community. The actual fact is that the total relationship has changed very little. In metropolitan Washington, for example, which was once encompassed wholly within the District of Columbia but which now includes the entire District plus Montgomery, Prince George's, Arlington, and Fairfax counties, Negroes have formed about a quarter of the total population for the past century. School enrollment ratios show a similar long-term stability. While the proportion of Negro pupils has risen sharply in the central city, their percentage in the metropolitan area has been relatively stable. Even during the decade between 1956 and 1966 when Negro enrollment in the District schools rose from 64 percent to 90 percent, the total Negro component in the metropolitan area changed by less than one-half of one percent, from 30.6 to 31.0 percent.

If eliminating racial isolation is accepted as a sufficiently important social and political goal to warrant necessary action by governments, private agencies, and families, it can be accomplished. It will require action on a metropolitan scale and participation by local, state, and federal governments. It will depend upon new approaches to public and private housing policy, extensive assistance to enable families to choose and acquire new homes, and sustained involvement by business and voluntary groups. Alterations in the structure and relations of the governmental units will be required. Financial incentives in the form of rent subsidies, favorable mortgage terms, and tax abatement will be necessary. Most importantly, such changes will call for comprehensive metropolitan planning in which educational planning plays a large part.

But none of this is likely to happen -- indeed all of it is certain not to happen -- until enough Marylanders, Virginians, Washingtonians, and Americans are convinced that their interests will be better served by making the national capital area a well-integrated metropolitan community than by keeping it the white encircled black ghetto that it is now.

Planning Metropolitan School Parks. While metropolitan school desegregation is obviously not immediately possible, it could be attained to a substantial extent by establishing metropolitan school parks. A school park is essentially a large campus accommodating a number of separate schools -- elementary, secondary, or both -- with as much or as little cooperation among them as may be desired. Several versions of such parks have been proposed but the type most appropriate for Washington is described in the 1967 report of the United States Commission on Civil Rights, "Racial Isolation in the Public Schools." If the scheme outlined in that publication were applied to Washington, school park sites would be located in a ring surrounding the District of Columbia with each site placed at a point where it could be attended by children from the District and from the suburbs. Most of the sites would probably be placed in Maryland and on the Virginia side of the Potomac. Each park would enroll between ten and twenty thousand students drawn from an attendance area shaped roughly like a triangle or the segment of a circle, with its apex in the center of the city and its base out in the suburbs. The pattern would be laid out to bring to any single park a majority of white students and enough Negro students to furnish between a sixth and a third of the total enrollment.

The typical park would be composed of a number of separate school buildings each of which would house a primary, middle, or secondary school with a student body of whatever size would produce the most favorable educational situation. Thus, elementary schools might accommodate a few hundred students, while the secondary units would probably be designed for the larger student bodies that make more varied curricula educationally and financially feasible. Entering students would be distributed among the schools in the park so as to assure a well-integrated combination in each school.

Obviously, most of the students would be transported to school. The justification for that additional inconvenience and expense would be precisely what it now is in the thousands of consolidated rural schools and in the hundreds of well-regarded independent day schools. Parents willingly send their children to these institutions by bus because they offer better education than would otherwise be available to the children. The "secret" of the school park is that, properly planned and administered, it could provide for all its pupils better education than they now receive.

This report is not the place either to describe in detail the parks that might serve the Washington area or to spell out a plan by which they could be brought into existence. It is important, however, that at the earliest possible time the communities concerned and the appropriate federal agencies consider the desirability of such an approach to the educational problems of the Washington area and examine the desirability of at least one or two such installations on an experimental basis.

Reducing Racial Isolation. Meanwhile, attention should be centered upon ways to reduce the racial isolation of the children who are now in the Washington schools. There are a number of directions in which action can and should be taken without delay. Every present means should be used and as many as possible created to encourage contact between the Washington schools and those in the surrounding communities. The start that has been made toward exchanges between school systems and visits by pupils and teachers to neighboring communities should be vigorously developed. If such programs are to be beneficial for the children involved, however, the educational purposes will have to be clearly identified and the procedures carefully planned. From such experiences each child should gain knowledge, associations, and perspectives that are not available in his own school and, wherever possible, the additional satisfaction of having contributed in some way to those he meets in the course of the new encounter.

Each school or class included in the program should therefore use such opportunities "to put its best foot forward," to stress its assets, and to share with its guests whatever relative advantages it possesses. Indeed, until a school can contribute positively in an exchange, its reception of pupils from more advantaged schools may be of doubtful value. To encourage condescension or a sense of inferiority among the more favored visitors or hosts would hardly improve the education of either.

In calculating the comparative assets of schools, it should not be forgotten that every Washington school shares the city's unique opportunities. Each year thousands of persons, many of them school children, come to Washington to visit its places of historic and cultural interest. If substantial numbers of students of the Washington schools were specifically prepared to serve as hosts and guides to such visitors, the results could be of considerable benefit to the local students as well as to those from other parts of the country. In preparing to serve as guides, Washington students could become acquainted with their city and the related historic and cultural subject matter. More importantly, they would find invaluable opportunities to improve their communication skills and their self-confidence. At the same time, the visitors, most of whom would be of a different race than their hosts, would themselves profit from closer acquaintance with children whom they might not otherwise meet under comparably favorable circumstances.

Opportunities for interracial association are also available through cooperative arrangements with non-public schools in Washington and the suburbs. Some 16,000 students, including almost as many whites as Negroes, attend such schools in the city alone. Inter-school relationships and, in the case of the Catholic parochial schools, arrangements involving the two school systems could lead to a variety of useful activities for large numbers of students. Attention could profitably be directed not only to the more

common forms of exchanges -- musical performances, student leader conferences, or athletic events -- but also to offering regular instruction in public schools on a part-time basis to independent or parochial school students. Needless to say, such programs should be predicated on the actual merging of classes. Integration would hardly be improved if the private school pupils were to be segregated within the public school building.

In planning curriculum, selecting experiences, producing materials and using the resources of Washington, every effort must be made to provide what might be called "instructional desegregation." The curriculum can provide the child with the skills and insights needed for living effectively in the complex world of the city: an understanding of interrelationships among people, the meaning of urbanization, the impact of mass communications. It is in the learning process that the schools must reverse the spiral of futility, build a strong self-image and implant hope where there is now hopelessness. Racial balance -- some optimum proportion of Negroes and whites -- has only meant an initial step toward integration and overcoming racial isolation. Unless steps are taken toward building an educational program which builds skills, values, attitudes, self-concepts, strong ego and sound mental health, much that is hoped for when steps are taken to improve racial balance cannot be attained. Compensatory programs must go far beyond the limited goal of improving basic skills. These programs are discussed in a later chapter.

Integrating School Facilities

With even the greatest ingenuity the possibility of introducing significant numbers of white students into the Washington schools will be severely limited for the foreseeable future, but the opportunities for the better integration of school faculties are much more promising. They are also more directly subject to the decisions and actions of the school board and the administrative staff. The fundamental question here, however, is whether the school authorities -- and the community -- are prepared to make the choices and commitments required to desegregate faculties.

This objective will not be reached by the mere redeployment of the present staff. Before a suitable personnel policy can be devised certain underlying assumptions will need to be examined, and if they are found tenable, set out as the explicit basis of board policy. A possible formulation of such assumptions is the following:

1. A racially integrated staff in each school and for the system as a whole may be expected to produce better educational results than a segregated staff.

Attention is frequently called to the desirability of placing minority children in direct contact with adults who through professional or other status demonstrate that members of their group can succeed normally in American society. For a Negro child a Negro teacher can be both a model and an inspiration, and many are. The value of this relationship is obviously diminished, however, if it appears that Negro teachers are expected to teach only Negro children, while whites teach members of their own race. Yet, increasingly, the staffing pattern of the Washington schools supports precisely that generalization. At the elementary level, 83 percent of the teachers are Negroes and although the proportions are lower at the secondary level, the tendency toward a predominantly Negro staff is unmistakable. A number of all-Negro schools now have all-Negro faculties.

For white as well as Negro children, an integrated faculty is educationally and socially desirable. They, too, should become acquainted with adults of other races

than their own and should become accustomed to seeing members of all races in a variety of status positions. The experience of having a Negro teacher or going to school under a Negro principal can add more to a white child's understanding and appreciation of interracial relationships than volumes of reading or hours of discussion. Yet, in several Washington schools with largely white student bodies all-white faculties have been maintained despite the obvious availability of qualified Negro instructors. Whatever reasons may have led to these arrangements, they are now anachronistic. Even if they could be attributed to pure chance, such arrangements would be inappropriate in a school system designed to educate children for the modern world.

2. A closely related assumption is that the necessary diversity of staffing cannot be attained through a "color blind" personnel policy.

A principle of impartial objectivity might be acceptable in schools and other areas of American life if it were actually true that race made no difference in social or political affairs. The fact, of course, is that race does matter and that it has mattered for a long time in all such affairs. To act as though racial differences were irrelevant would be to base important actions on a denial of the truth. Such a policy in Washington or anywhere else would be a disservice to the public and to the children. Until the accumulated effects of racial discrimination in our country have been reduced well below its present level, public and private decisions must deliberately compensate for a variety of forms of racial "imbalance."

This means, to cite one example, that in assigning teachers to particular schools, one consideration must be whether the school in question has too many or too few Negroes on its faculty. In the absence of evidence that another ratio will produce better results, the Washington school system might justifiably aim for the goal of assuring that in the course of his school career the typical student will encounter an equal number of white and Negro teachers.

3. In view of the current degree of racial imbalances in the Washington teaching staff and the obvious obligation to protect the rights of the tenured and probationary teachers now employed, it must be assumed that special efforts will be required to recruit white teachers in the necessary numbers and at suitable levels of competence.

To embark on such a course will inevitably subject the school board to accusations of favoring white applicants at the expense of Negroes. Unless the board is willing to accept and respond to such charges, it faces the early probability of a totally Negro teaching force and the equally strong likelihood that the Washington schools would then become even less attractive than they are now to the best qualified teachers of <u>both</u> races.

4. The problems of the Washington schools are not restricted to racial isolation but stem also from the presence of a large proportion of impoverished and culturally disadvantaged students.

It must, therefore, be assumed that the schools require the services of teachers with unusual competence in teaching such children. This requirement further complicates the task of teacher recruitment. While comparative salary levels are not to be discounted as an attraction, persons of the type now needed in city schools are particularly interested in working conditions that offer them a reasonable chance to use their skills and to exercise initiative. In attracting and holding the best professionals in any field, such conditions, combined with evidence of community interest

and acceptance, provide intangible rewards that are often as important as money.

Increasing Staff Diversification. The reformation of the school staff outlined here could not be accomplished in a brief time. Such proposals as these could be realized only through consistent and sustained efforts over a period of at least several years. In the meantime, -- and indeed as a permanent policy -- some of the benefits associated with greater staff diversification could be obtained in other ways. One of these ways is the establishment of visiting appointments for carefully selected teachers from other school systems. Exchange arrangements between Washington and other cities which should be part of any such plan would yield double dividends. Besides bringing in able outsiders, they would enable members of the Washington staff to broaden their perspectives by teaching in other places. But efforts should also be made to attract for one-year assignments exceptional teachers from other parts of the country who would come without exchange arrangements and as net additions to the Washington staff. Indeed, for the immediate future, it could be argued that, except for brief visits to other places where particularly promising programs might be observed, Washington will badly need to keep its best teachers at home.

Another means of immediate improvement is the increased use of volunteers. In some cases these might be mothers -- or grandmothers -- who would serve as general assistants to teachers, librarians, and principals, or in other ways. Another category of volunteers might consist of highly qualified persons in the arts, sciences, professions, business, or government who would spend several hours per week or per month working directly with teachers or students to strengthen instructional programs and broaden the range of knowledge available in the schools. Making effective use of either general service volunteers or expert specialists will depend on more than the cordiality of the invitation that is issued. If such persons are to be productively engaged in the schools, they and the staff members with whom they work will have to agree in advance on what is expected of the volunteers, the ways in which they will serve, and the relation of their functions to those of the regular staff.

Socio-economic Segregation. The understandable concern with racial segregation in Washington seems to have obscured the degree to which the schools, like urban schools elsewhere, are segregated in other ways. The neighborhood school tends to separate children not only by race but also into groups that are socially and economically homogeneous. Among 25 elementary schools selected during this survey as a representative sample of all the elementary schools, 20 enroll more than 95 percent Negro students. These are all de facto segregated schools, but in other respects they are not alike. The median annual family income in the neighborhoods they serve ranges from a low of $2,940, plainly at the poverty level, to a high of $8,040, appreciably above the national average. The highest income level represented in the sample, $13,170, is found in a neighborhood where two-thirds of the public elementary school pupils are Negro. These differences suggest that within a city-wide context of racial segregation, the educational task is further complicated by socio-economic segregation at the neighborhood level. The racial condition, as has been noted repeatedly, cannot be corrected at once, but steps could be taken to establish a better balance of socio-economic levels in a number of schools. Indeed, the presence in Washington of many Negro middle-class families of superior educational background offers opportunities available in few if any other large cities.

The administrative schemes that might be explored as means to better socio-economic integration include all of those ordinarily proposed to advance racial integration: changes in attendance areas to include neighborhoods of varying types; pairing schools; open enrollment, preferably with free transportation; and the designation of clusters or complexes of schools to serve jointly larger and more varied attendance areas.

Whether the goal is racial integration or a more productive balance of social, economic and cultural backgrounds in a school, the policies and administrative procedures adopted to bring about change must be appraised by the application of certain fundamental criteria. In comparing percentages, proportions, and patterns of organization it is easy to overlook the relation of data and decision to the peculiarly personal nature of the educational enterprise. From the selection of sites and the design of buildings to the appointment of teachers and the formation of classes, the ultimate value of any action is the degree to which it enables the student as a person to learn more effectively and to develop his capacities more fully.

Integration and Quality Education. Despite the false dichotomies that are frequently suggested, there is no natural opposition between integration and "quality" education, nor is it true that if only integration is achieved all the other educational advantages will inevitably follow. It is predictable, however, that in a genuinely comprehensive and well-balanced student body, the need for individualized attention and compensatory programs will be even more evident than in a less varied group. Contrasts in ability, achievement, and aspiration can encourage extra effort and raise the common level of performance, but they also reveal differences and weaknesses that teachers as well as students might not be conscious of in a less stimulating environment.

To offer all children equal education remains a necessary beginning, for the discrepancy between the best and the worst of Washington's schools can be neither condoned nor defended. But equality among schools is only the first step. The city's sights should be set not on making its schools equal, but on devising whatever means are required to enable every child to develop his potential and to get his chance. Whatever his possibilities, wherever he begins, he should have the help he needs to reach maturity prepared to compete on fair terms in an open society. To live with this conception of equal opportunity, the community must be willing and the schools must be able to furnish unequal education. Unequal education to promote equal opportunity may seem a radical proposal, but it is in fact a well-established practice. It is precisely what has long been done for physically and mentally handicapped children under the name of "special" education. In the cases of these minorities, what is now called compensatory education is universally approved. But the largest minority of Washington's children are not the crippled or the mentally retarded. They are those who suffer the handicaps of sustained deprivation and neglect. It must become an explicit public policy, adopted and supported by every agency that shares responsibility and authority for educational decisions, to provide unequal, exceptional education for every child who needs it.

If tomorrow morning, every child could be placed in an integrated school, many are so seriously retarded academically that they would still need, as they do now, a great deal of special help. Whether such instruction is called preventive, remedial, corrective, or by some acronymic catch-phrase, it must have the flexibility and the potency to meet the individual requirements of children for whom present programs are too rigid or too weak.

That the Washington schools, with but a few fortunate exceptions, should have been permitted to decline to their present level reflects small credit on American education, the District of Columbia, or the federal government. Little would be gained now by searching for either scapegoats or culprits, but much is certain to be lost by further delay in doing what is necessary to correct the situation. Although the most desirable solutions are not immediately attainable, there is a wide range of realistic possibilities.

In the entire American credo, no tenet is more firmly held than our conviction that education is the foundation of freedom. To demonstrate how works can give substance to that faith, no setting could be as appropriate as the nation's capital.

Chapter 9

Organization for Instruction

The District of Columbia's "track system" has been the center of controversy for the past several years. Although "tracking" is hardly unique to Washington's schools, the heated debate generated around the "Basic" or "Special Academic Program" track may well have obscured more fundamental issues of teaching and learning for the school population as a whole.

Arguments pro and con the "track system" have been set forth on record several times. The Board of Education held open hearings in February 1965 at which time 56 individuals and organizations presented oral or written statements -- 35 favoring retention, 21 opposing tracking. These hearings culminated almost a year of intermittent discussion. The bulk of the testimony presented at the hearings before the Task Force on Antipoverty in the District of Columbia of the House Committee on Education and Labor in October 1965 and January 1966 (i.e., "The Pucinski Committee") concerns itself with the track system. In Hobson vs. Hansen and the Board of Education hundreds of pages of testimony concern tracking and Judge Wright's decision first declares "an injunction against racial and economic discrimination in the public school system here" and then decrees "abolition of the track system."

The opponents of the track system view it as "a new form of racial, social, and economic discrimination" which results in "programmed retardation" for large numbers of pupils. The supporters view it as a means of "increasing the teachability of classes."

The question of the track system has been aired not only on the "Hill," in court and at open Board meetings but it has occupied the attention of Board committees and the Board as a whole at many sessions. The Board of Education officially abandoned the name "track system" in 1965. In November 1966, it reaffirmed "its desire to institute innovative methods designed to provide the maximum possible individualization of instruction in the District schools." At that session, the Board urged continued experimentation with many variations of classroom organization. In January 1967, the Superintendent of Schools, at the request of the President of the Board, presented a statement of "Procedures for Eliminating the Variable Curriculum (Track System) and Suggested Alternatives" (January 18, 1967).

The task force has studied the track system (we will use the term here since no actions by the Board of Education, the school administration or any segment of the press or community have resulted in abandoning or altering the label) from several viewpoints. We have analyzed available data -- i.e., numbers of pupils in various tracks, their achievement and their movement from one level to another. Principals, guidance counselors and some teachers in 12 elementary and all junior and senior high schools were interviewed. Teachers and school officers responded to a set of items dealing with tracking on an inventory. In some of the subject matter studies, questions about tracking practices were also asked. Our inquiries concerned curricular differentiation in various tracks, criteria for student assignment, procedures used for assigning teachers to various tracks, instructional materials available and promotion policies.

1/ Dr. Miriam L. Goldberg prepared the report from which this material is drawn. Dr. Anna Lee Hopson and Dr. David Wilder conducted the study of teacher attitudes toward tracking.

Finally, all available reports, testimony, curriculum bulletins and other materials were examined. Thus, we have attempted to study tracking on the basis of data, without impugning motives either of supporters or opponents of the practice as it exists in the District schools.

Tracking in the Washington Schools

Any form of ability grouping is, theoretically, a means of providing the teacher with a more "teachable" group and, consequently, of enabling pupils to receive instruction more nearly appropriate to their academic ability. It generally represents a school's efforts to differentiate learning experiences and come closer to the "ideal" of individualized instruction. Grouping is designed to counteract the common practice of teaching a total class or, as in the primary grades, two or more sub-groups, in particular subjects. Addressing the total class invites failure to reach those at the extremes -- the slow are left behind, the brightest are unchallenged. Working with sub-groups curtails the amount of teacher time and attention given to each pupil. By narrowing the range of academic ability, the teacher is theoretically able to "fit" instruction to the average level of the total group so that all group members will be served without about equal effectiveness.

Tracking is one form of ability grouping. However, as commonly used, it differs from other forms of ability grouping by operating on predetermined, absolute, system-wide standards rather than on relative standards derived from the characteristics of each school's population. Defined in this way, that the criteria for admission and the procedures of identification are uniform from school to school, system-wide programs for retarded pupils can be classified as forms of tracking. In this sense, special system-wide programs for the emotionally disturbed, physically handicapped or neurologically impaired are "tracking." So are such plans as the IGC (Intellectually Gifted Children) classes at the elementary level or the SP (Special Progress) classes at the junior high school level in New York City. Generally, the criteria for admission to special programs for the handicapped are more rigidly adhered to than those for admission to the gifted classes.

But "tracking" has another implication, especially as originally conceived for the high school level by Dr. Carl Hansen. It not only prescribes means for narrowing the ability range; it also delineates the major portion of the curriculum within each ability band or "track." In this fashion, tracking prevents a pupil from electing courses deemed "inappropriate" for one of his ability (too easy for the bright, too difficult for the slow) or courses wide of his academic goals (shop courses for the college-bound, advanced academic courses for the "terminal" students). Thus, Washington students in the Honors track have to take 18 Carnegie units, of which 16-1/2 must be honors level courses distributed as follows: English (4 years)*, foreign language (4 years), math (3 years), sciences (3 years), and history and government (2-1/2 years). Such a program leaves a maximum of 1-1/2 credits for electives.

As one moves down from the Honors track, the number of units required for graduation decreases only by two, but the number of prescribed courses decreases far more. For the College Preparatory track only 10-1/2 units are prescribed; for the General track, only 6-1/2 units. In the Basic (or Special Academic) track, there is also a 6-1/2 unit academic requirement, but, in addition, 2 units of prescribed courses in business practices or shops (including home economics for girls) are also required.

A third characteristic of the Washington tracking plan derives from the pre-set uniformity of course requirements. Theoretically, all (or almost all) of a pupil's academic courses would fall at the same level. If a student is assigned to the Honors

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* Four years of English are generally equivalent to three Carnegie units.

track, he must take a minimum of 16-1/2 honors level units; similarly, a College Preparatory student must carry at least 10-1/2 units of college preparatory level courses. A Special Academic track student is likewise placed in basic level classes in all academic subjects.

Tracking, then, was intended to create a better "match" between the pupil's academic ability and performance and the level of academic work to which he is exposed, by means of:

1. Narrowing the range of abilities in any classroom;

2. Prescribing the scope and level of difficulty of each pupil's academic program so that he is unable to elect courses which might be either too easy or too difficult for him;

3. Maintaining each pupil at the level deemed most appropriate for him in all (or almost all) of his academic work;

4. Setting system-wide standards for admission into each track and prescribing the curriculum appropriate for each level.

Present Status of Tracking

At present, tracking procedures are in effect at all three levels of the school system. (See Table 9-1.) However, the degree to which such procedures are part of the official policy of a school varies considerably at the elementary level, less so at the higher levels.

Table 9-1.

Number and Percent of Pupils in the Various Curricula in the Elementary, Junior High and Senior High Schools (October 1966)

Level	Spec.Acad.		General		Regular		Honors		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Elementary	1,919	2.3	78,444	96.4	--	--	1,050	1.3	81,413
Junior High	2,193	7.5	--	--	25,287	86.7	1,702	5.8	29,182
Senior High	646	3.4	10,040	53.3	7,123	37.8	1,046	5.5	18,855
All Levels	4,758	3.7	88,484	68.4	32,410	25.0	3,798	2.9	129,450

At the Elementary Level

Theoretically, there are three tracks into which pupils can be placed at the elementary level: 1) Special Academic; 2) General; 3) Honors. However, few of the schools had pupils enrolled in all of the three tracks. Out of the original sample of 12 schools, only two had classes in all three tracks. (See Table 9-2.) However, all but two of the schools (Fillmore and Hayes) had at least three class sections at the fourth grade. At the sixth grade, three schools had only one section, while two others had two sections each.

Table 9-2.

Number and Percent of Pupils in the Various Curricula in Twelve Sample Elementary Schools (October 1966)

School	Spec. Acad. No.	Spec. Acad. %	General No.	General %	Honors No.	Honors %	Total
Burroughs	28	3.2	806	91.1	51	5.7	885
Draper	31	2.8	1082	97.2	--	--	1113
Fillmore	--	--	80	88.9	10	11.1	90
Hayes	--	--	188	100.0	--	--	188
Janney	--	--	337	85.5	57	14.5	394
Maury	13	2.7	470	97.3	--	--	483
Montgomery	13	2.2	566	97.8	--	--	579
Murch	--	--	435	81.9	96	18.1	531
Nalle	13	2.3	556	97.7	--	--	569
Noyes	13	1.7	751	98.3	--	--	764
Shepherd	--	--	417	87.1	62	12.9	479
Syphax	20	3.1	625	96.9	--	--	645
All Schools	131	1.9	6313	94.0	276	4.1	6720

Whether the sections were designated as tracks or not, the average ability and achievement scores differed greatly from section to section. And, although test data were not available "by track" for fourth and sixth grade, the Board of Education published official figures of the number of pupils enrolled in each of the three tracks (or "curricula," as they are designated) for October 1966.

Special Academic Track. Admission to the Special Academic program is dependent upon 1) the results of an individual psychological examination and report, 2) the principal's decision on the basis of the report as well as teacher judgment, and 3) parents' approval of enrollment. In general, pupils who score above IQ 75 are not recommended for Special Academic classes, while those who score below may or may not be admitted, depending upon other academic as well as non-academic factors. As of March 1967, reports from 85 of the 136 elementary schools noted the operation of Special Academic classes enrolling 2021 pupils. This represented about 2.4% of all pupils in grades 1-6, including all special education pupils.1/ From October, 1966, to March, 1967, 43 of the schools showed an increase of two or more pupils enrolled in Special Academic classes while 18 showed a decrease of two or more pupils. In about half the schools in which there was an increase in the Special Academic population, there was

1/ When Sharpe Health School is added, the total number of Special Academic students increases to 2040 and the percent to 2.5.

also an increase in total pupil enrollment. However, in 18 of the 43 schools which increased in Special Academic enrollment there was a marked decrease in total population; at the same time, 13 of the 18 schools with decreased Special Academic enrollment also reported a general drop in school size. Across all schools, there was a very slight increase in both numbers and percent in the Special Academic curriculum between October 1966, when there were 1919 Special Academic pupils representing 2.3%, and March 1967, when 2040 pupils represented almost 2.5% of all pupils in grades 1-6 except those in special education classes other than Special Academic.

During the school years 1959-1960 to 1965-1966, the proportion of elementary school pupils enrolled in the Special Academic Curriculum ranged from 3.9 to 3.1%, with an average of 3.5%. Thus, the present proportion represents a decrease of about 1% from earlier years.

It is not possible to account accurately for the decrease. However, since a downward trend was already observable in 1965-1966, one might speculate that community pressures against tracking might have led to more careful screening of pupils. Some schools have actually dropped the designation, Special Academic, and placed pupils who would have qualified for this program in low regular sections. There were, in fact, two schools -- Harrison and Hyde -- which had, respectively, 15 and 8 Special Academic pupils in October 1966, but none in March 1967. But there were also three schools which listed no Special Academic pupils in October 1966 -- Cooke, H. D. Hendley and Jackson -- which reported 15, 15 and 8 Special Academic pupils, respectively, in March 1967.

The latest data available on Special Academic curriculum membership by race went back to October 1966. At that time, there were 63 white and 1856 Negro pupils enrolled in such classes. Since there was a total of 6112 white pupils and 75,301 Negro pupils in the regular plus Special Academic classes, grades 1-6, the white Special Academic students represented 1% of the total white population and the Negro Special Academic students, 2.5% of the Negro population. In view of the great difference in average socio-economic status of the two racial groups, and in view of the consistently positive correlation between mental retardation and social class, the discrepancy in percents is even less than would have been expected. When the pupils designated as Severely Mentally Retarded (N=359) were added to the Special Academic total, the 2399 pupils who fell approximately below IQ 75 represented 2.9% of the total population (excluding the physically and emotionally handicapped). Even if the population were completely "normal" (i.e., not negatively skewed socio-economically as the D.C. population is) one would expect about 6.5% of the population to fall below IQ 75, the cut-off used as a reference point for admission to the Special Academic curriculum in Washington. Thus, the proportion of pupils designated as somewhat or severely retarded fell well below expectation by national standards for a "normal" population. However, since admission to the Special Academic curriculum is <u>not</u> mandatory for all pupils of IQ 75 and below, there may well be a sizable number of such pupils not included in these figures.

<u>Honors Curriculum</u>. The Honors curriculum does not officially begin until grade five. As of October, 1966, there were 1050 Honors pupils in all the elementary schools, or about 1.3%. Only 32, all elementary schools, reported the availability of an Honors program, and the number of pupils involved ranged from one in Berney to 105 in Lafayette. On the average, the schools which reported Honors programs each had about 31 pupils so involved. The number of pupils enrolled in the Honors curriculum was not a function of the size of the school: a rank order correlation between number of Honors pupils and size of school yielded an R of .24. In fact, the school which reported only one Honors student had a total enrollment of 1012, while the school with 105 Honors

students had only 598 pupils.1/

No breakdown by race was available for either the Honors or the Regular track.

Since admission to the Honors curriculum begins at grade five, determinations are made at the end of grade four on the basis of group IQ tests, achievement tests, past grades, and teacher assessment of personal characteristics. The school lists thus compiled serve only as a recommendation, since they must be submitted to the Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Elementary Schools, who notifies principals of the candidates who qualify for fifth grade Honors sections. These sections are generally maintained intact through sixth grade.

Sectioning on the Basis of Ability. As mentioned earlier, some schools listed neither Honors nor Special Academic classes. However, wherever there were enough pupils to account for more than one section at a grade, distribution of pupils tended to be on the basis of ability and/or achievement. An examination of the mean SCAT scores of various fourth grade classes in the 12 original sample schools demonstrates the consistent differences among sections within a school. From Table 9-3 one can see clearly not only the differences among schools but also those among classes within schools. Except for Murch and Shepherd, the bottom section of the fourth grade in the remaining 10 schools fell within the bottom third on SCAT and in the bottom quarter on Reading and Math achievement. The top class in all schools except Maury and Syphax fell above the top quartile on SCAT and, except for Montgomery, above the top quarter on both achievement measures.

Hayes presents an interesting departure from the observed pattern. Despite a relatively low mean SCAT score (46th percentile), the mean achievement scores on Reading and Math were both above the 90th percentile: 99 and 94, respectively. In Maury, where the top class SCAT mean fell at the same percentile point (46), the mean Reading and Math percentiles were 57 and 45, respectively. To the extent that SCAT represents a measure of learning aptitude, the single class at Hayes achieved well beyond expectation.

It is thus quite clear that, as of 1966, ability grouping was practiced quite consistently beginning in grade four in all schools in which there was more than one class per grade. Even in Murch, where the total grade was of a high ability and achievement level, one class appeared to have somewhat less able or less advanced pupils than the other two; while at Maury, where all the classes were at the low end, the top class had more able and higher achieving pupils than the other three schools.

The data for sixth grade also demonstrate the consistency of ability grouping. Although it is not possible to determine how many "certified" Honors classes there were at this grade level, on the basis of the general criteria and the reports from the schools one would expect a total of eight such classes in Burroughs, Fillmore, Janney, Murch and Shepherd, since all reported a number of pupils in the Honors curriculum. In each case, the pupils fell in the top 15% on the intelligence measure, were from 2.1 to 4.3 years accelerated in Paragraph Meaning, from 1.6 to 2.8 years ahead in Arithmetic Applications. The top class in Janney, though in the top 10% on IQ, was less than one year accelerated in Arithmetic Computation. In the remaining schools, the top class probably would not have qualified for the Honors curriculum, but nonetheless represented the best group the school had. In some instances, despite considerably lower IQ scores, these top classes did as well or better in Arithmetic Computation than some

1/ These findings reflect the fact that the smaller elementary schools tend to be in more affluent areas of the city.

Table 9-3

Mean Percentile Ranks* of Fourth Grade Classes Within Twelve Elementary Schools on SCAT, STEP Reading, and STEP Math

	Classes**																			
	I				II				III				IV				V			
		Percentiles				Percentiles				Percentiles				Percentiles				Percentiles		
School	N	SCAT	Read	Math	N	SCAT	Read	Math	N	SCAT	Read	Math	N	SCAT	Read	Math	N	SCAT	Read	Math
Burroughs	32	97	99	99	34	78	89	93	33	64	57	23	35	46	57	28	18	31	26	6
Draper	35	78	76	92	33	64	62	45	34	46	55	23	12	35	5	6	30	31	13	6
Fillmore	19	98	99+	99+																
Hayes	29	46	99	94																
Janney	28	99+	99+	99	27	97	99+	97	5	46	26	23								
Maury	32	46	57	45	37	35	8	0	20	33	6	0	30	31	13	6				
Montgomery	24	78	83	51	22	31	6	0	16	29	5	11								
Murch	35	99+	99+	99+	34	98	99+	99	29	88	91	93								
Nalle	31	78	98	92	31	64	68	92	28	35	30	23	15	31	8	0				
Noyes	28	78	99	92	31	64	68	28	32	46	62	28	26	31	21	6	10	25	5	0
Shepherd	34	99+	99+	99+	36	94	96	96	14	67	55	28								
Syphax	28	64	76	23	32	46	30	6	31	31	4	11								

* Percentiles were derived from fall testing norms and represent a considerable overestimation of actual performance, since scores were taken from tests administered in April rather than October. However, the relative positions of the classes were probably not seriously affected.

** Classes are listed in descending order of SCAT score magnitude rather than as labelled by the schools.

Table 9-4

Mean Otis Beta IQ's and Stanford Achievement Test Grade Equivalents*
In Paragraph Meaning, Arithmetic Computation and Arithmetic Applications
for Sixth Grade Classes Within Twelve Elementary Schools

	Classes															
	I				II				III				IV			
School	IQ	Par.	Arithmetic Comp.	Arithmetic Appl.	IQ	Par.	Arithmetic Comp.	Arithmetic Appl.	IQ	Par.	Arithmetic Comp.	Arithmetic Appl.	IQ	Par.	Arithmetic Comp.	Arithmetic Appl.
**Burroughs	119	8,7	8.2	8.5	106	6.5	6.4	6.0	92	5.7	6.0	5.5	92	4.7	5.2	4.7
Draper	102	6.5	5.7	6.4	90	4.6	5.0	4.9	88	(combined with II)			86	4.6	5.3	4.6
**Fillmore	112	9.0	6.9	8.0												
Hayes	89	5.9	6.4	5.4												
**Janney	123	9.6	7.4	9.9	89	7.2	6.4	7.2								
**Maury	97	6.1	6.4	6.4	89	5.3	6.0	5.4	76	5.0	5.5	4.8				
Montgomery	--	5.8	5.9	5.6												
**Murch	127	10.9	9.2	10.7	126	10.4	10.0	10.5	109	7.2	7.1	7.5	103	6.6	7.8	7.3
Nalle	104	7.7	8.8	7.3	91	5.1	6.2	5.9	86	4.6	4.3	4.4				
Noyes	102	6.5	6.1	6.5	92	5.8	6.0	5.4	85	3.8	4.7	4.4	81	4.2	4.5	4.3
**Shepherd	126	10.1	9.4	11.0	103	6.7	9.1	6.7								
Syphax	104	6.5	6.5	5.9	95	5.5	5.3	5.3	87	4.5	5.1	4.8				

* Since the tests were administered in March 1966, the expected grade level would be 6.6.

** Schools which were officially listed as having Honors curriculum students.

Table 9-5

Grade Equivalents for Seven Sub-Tests of Sixth Grade Classes with Mean IQ's between 102 and 106

School	Class N	Class Position	$\bar{X}$ IQ	Sub-Tests: Word Mean'g	Para Mean'g	Spellg	Lang	Arith Comp	Arith Concpt	Arith Appl	Average Score	Ach't Rank	School Size: White	Negro	Total
Burroughs	35	2	106	6.3	6.5	6.1	6.2	6.4	6.3	6.0	6.3	6	23	966	989
Draper	32	1	102	5.9	6.5	6.7	6.2	5.7	6.2	6.4	6.2	7	52	1207	1259
Murch	24	4	103	5.8	6.6	6.5	8.0	7.8	7.3	7.3	7.0	3	583	18	601
Nalle	30	1	104	7.7	7.7	7.5	7.9	8.8	8.6	7.3	7.9	1	---	690	690
Noyes	31	1	102	5.7	6.5	7.2	6.7	6.1	6.5	6.5	6.5	5	13	867	880
Shepherd	34	2	103	6.3	6.7	7.1	7.4	9.1	8.1	6.7	7.3	2	195	355	550
Syphax	36	1	104	6.4	6.5	7.2	6.4	6.5	7.0	5.9	6.6	4	---	744	744
Total Range in Years				2.0	1.2	1.4	1.8	3.4	2.4	1.4	1.7				

of the higher ability sections in other schools.[1/] (See Nalle vs. Janney or Fillmore in Table 9-4.)

It is worth noting that classes of approximately equal general ability performed quite differently from school to school. For example, the mean IQ of the top classes in Draper, Nalle, Noyes and Syphax fell within a two-point range, 102-104. Yet the grade equivalents in Paragraph Meaning ranged from 11 months above grade level at Nalle to one month below grade level at Syphax. Even at Shepherd, where the top group performed well beyond expectation, the second level class, comparable in IQ to the top class in Nalle, fell one year below the latter in Paragraph Meaning. Table 9-5 presents the achievement scores for all classes with mean IQ's between 102 and 106, in order to examine the possible effects of section position within the school as well as of the characteristics of a particular school.

From Table 9-5 it would appear that class position within a school was not a crucial determinant of achievement. Of the three classes which showed the highest achievement, the first held first position out of three, the second, second position out of two, and the third, fourth position out of four. Conversely, the two lowest-achieving of the seven classes of comparable mean IQ (standard deviation data were unavailable) held first and second position out of four.

Ethnic composition of the school was related to differential achievement patterns. Although the highest scoring class was in an all-Negro school, the next two classes were both in schools with the greatest proportion of white pupils; the fourth highest class was, again, in a completely Negro school. The rank order correlation between proportion of Negro pupils and achievement was -.86--i.e., the larger the proportion of Negroes, the lower the achievement.

School size also bore a relationship to achievement, but this is an artifact. The three higher classes were in schools of less than 700 pupils, while the four lower-scoring classes were in schools of 744 pupils and above. This would have been expected in view of the fact that the predominantly Negro schools were the larger ones. Class size showed a considerably lower relationship to achievement, with a rank order correlation of -.36 (i.e., the larger the class, the lower the achievement).

Thus, the great variability in the average achievement of classes of relatively comparable scholastic ability (as measured by intelligence test scores) was a function of the character of the school rather than of position or even class size.

Similarly, classes with mean IQ's below 90 (76-89) showed great fluctuations in achievement. For example, there was a 3.4 year difference in Paragraph Meaning between class II in Janney, which had a mean IQ of 89 and a grade equivalent of 7.2, and class III in Noyes, with a mean IQ of 85 and a grade equivalent of 3.8. (See Table 9-6.) Since standard deviations were unavailable, it was not possible to determine the differences in distribution of scores. However, in some instances, as in the one above, the mean achievement differences were so large that powerful school effects were certainly operating. If the class with IQ 76 is eliminated (this class fell at about the middle of the distribution), classes within an IQ range of eight points showed a 3.4 year range in reading, and about a 2 year range in arithmetic.

1/ The problem of block programming of pupils in the light of considerable variation in performance across subjects is discussed in another section of this report.

Table 9-6

Sixth Grade Classes in Sample Schools with Mean IQ's under 90

School	Class Position	Mean IQ	Paragraph Meaning	Arith Computation	Arith Applications
Draper	IV	86	4.6	5.3	4.6
Hayes	I	89	5.9	6.4	5.4
Janney	II	89	7.2	6.4	7.2
Maurey	II	89	5.3	6.0	5.4
"	III	76	5.0	5.5	4.8
Nalley	III	86	4.6	4.3	4.4
Noyes	III	85	3.8	4.7	4.4
"	IV	81	4.2	4.5	4.3
Syphax	III	87	4.5	5.1	4.8
Maximum Difference		13	3.4	2.1	1.9

From the available data one would conclude that the effects of the grouping procedures were far less marked than the effects of the school. A class of relatively low scholastic ability at Janney, for example, scored six months above grade level in reading, while a class of similar average ability (IQ 87) at Syphax scored 1.1 years below grade level; and one just slightly lower (IQ 85) at Noyes scored 1.8 years below grade level. These data indicate that school standards and expectations plus pupil motivation, rather than factors related to tracking or pupil ability, affect achievement at the elementary school level. This is consistent with findings from other school systems.

At the Junior High School Level

As is true for the elementary schools, three tracks are also officially available at the junior high school level: Honors, Regular and Special Academic. Of the 27 regular junior high schools, eleven had all three tracks; two had no Special Academic, and 14 had no Honors. In some few schools, the Regular track was subdivided at the 8th or 9th grade level to allow for election of a commercial vs. academic emphasis. In general, pupils were block programmed, with some cross-tracking permitted when pupils showed special ability in a specific area based on school grades or achievement test scores. However, after grade 7 few pupils were moved from Regular into Honors sections, since the latter required the completion of prerequisite courses which Regular track students had not had.

As of October 1966, there were 2193 pupils enrolled in the Special Academic curriculum, 25,287 in Regular classes, and 1702 in Honors sections. In addition, there were 587 pupils enrolled in special education classes other than Special Academic.

Special Academic Curriculum. Clearly defined criteria were established for admission to the Special Academic Curriculum. These are similar to the standards for the elementary schools. Potential candidates are generally recommended by their teachers

on the basis of class performance; those recommended are then assessed on the basis of IQ and achievement test scores. Pupils who were in Special Academic classes in grade 6 may be moved on to the seventh grade Special Academic curriculum without additional psychological evaluation. New candidates are referred to the Department of Pupil Personnel Services for individual psychological assessment. An IQ of 75 is generally considered the upper cut-off point for eligibility. However, no principal is bound by the psychologists' recommendation. In addition, written parental consent is required.

In general, placement in the Special Academic curriculum is limited to those of low academic ability and achievement; but in some instances, (Taft, for example) principals admit students who have emotional problems, even when their general ability is higher than the cut-off point.

Table 9-7

Number and Percent of Special Academic Students
in Each of Grades 7, 8 and 9 in Ten Sample Junior High Schools
as of October 1966

School	Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9		Total Oct. 1966		Total March 1967		Rank
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Deal	-	--	-	--	-	--	-	--	5	.04	10
Eliot	16	3.7	23	5.5	12	3.3	51	4.2	43	3.6	7
Gordon	13	3.8	8	2.4	11	3.2	32	3.1	33	3.3	8
Hart	35	4.7	17	2.8	17	3.0	69	3.6	57	3.0	9
Miller	32	8.7	32	10.0	20	6.0	84	8.3	92	8.8	4
Paul	19	5.0	12	3.5	15	4.4	46	4.3	48	4.4	6
Randall	65	17.9	41	13.0	22	8.2	128	13.5	175	19.2	2
Shaw	170	32.6	119	28.8	112	30.9	401	30.9	380	30.4	1
Taft	24	5.7	47	15.2	10	2.7	81	7.4	57	5.3	5
Terrell	41	9.6	35	10.0	36	11.8	112	10.4	90	8.8	3

The 2193 pupils enrolled in the Special Academic curriculum represented 7.4% of the total junior high school population as of October 1966, or more than three times as many as were so designated at the elementary level. When the 587 special education students are excluded, the Special Academic population represented about 7.5% of the total.

Deal and Langley reported no Special Academic students while Jefferson reported only eight such students. In all remaining regular junior high schools, the numbers ranged from 17 at Backus to 401 at Shaw.

When the percentages of Special Academic students were examined by grade, the proportions varied not only by school but by grade as well. In the seventh grade of the

ten sample schools, percentages varied from zero at Deal; under 4% at Eliot and Gordon; 4% to 6% at Hart, Paul and Taft; to 9%, 10%, 18% and 33% at Miller, Terrell, Randall and Shaw, respectively. At grade 8, five schools had 6% or less (Deal, Eliot, Gordon, Hart and Paul); four schools had 10% to 15% (Miller, Randall, Terrell and Taft); and Shaw had 29%. At the ninth grade, the proportion of Special Academic students showed little change from the two preceding years in the schools with low incidence (Eliot, Gordon, Hart, Paul). In Taft the proportion dropped from over 15% in grade 8 to under 3% in grade 9; Randall dropped from 13% to 8%; Shaw and Terrell showed little change.

As of March 1967, the proportion of students enrolled in the Special Education curriculum was about the same as in September 1966, in most of the sample schools. However, at Randall there was a 6% increase, at Taft a 2% decrease, and at Terrell a 1.6% decrease. Thus, over the two-year span, for the 10 sample junior high schools, the proportion of Special Academic students remained the same (8.4%), although somewhat higher than the city-wide figure.

The Negro-white distribution in the low track, across all junior high schools as of October 1966, was about 3% white and 97% Negro. Thus, the proportion of white students was one third as large as the proportion of whites in the total junior high population at that time (8.9%), and the proportion of Negroes about 7% higher than their proportion in the population. If IQ 75 is used as a cut-off point, one would expect about 5% of any normally distributed population to fall below. Thus, one would expect about 133 white pupils and 1406 Negro pupils to fall into this category. Actually, about 7.4% of Washington pupils are placed in this track; but this percentage is an average between 2.5% white (about half of the expected 5%) and 7.8% Negro (about 1-1/2 times as high as the expected 5%). In view of the very sharp discrepancy between the average socio-economic level of the white and Negro populations in Washington (and the consistent positive relationship between SES and IQ), these figures are not particularly startling.

Honors Curriculum. Membership in Honors classes was possible in 13 of the 27 junior high schools. Pupils are recommended by their teachers and principals on the basis of grades, achievement test scores and IQ scores. In general, an IQ of 115-120 is considered minimum for Honors candidates. As at the elementary level, school lists of recommended students are sent to the central office. If a sufficient number to form a class are considered eligible in any one school at a given grade, the school may offer an Honors curriculum. If not, students who qualify are advised to transfer to another school where such a program is offered. Here, too, parental permission is required before a student may be enrolled in the Honors curriculum. Sixth grade Honors pupils are generally placed in seventh grade Honors without further assessment. In addition, pupils not designated as Honors students in grade six may be so designated in grade seven. The number of Honors students is generally greater in the junior highs than in the elementary schools. This may be due to the fact that many of the latter do not designate their classes by track names; and that where there are not enough pupils to form a special Honors class, qualified pupils are not transferred out but rather entered into "regular" classes.

As of October, 1966, there was a total of 1702 Honors students at the junior high level, or about 5.7% of the total enrollment. This figure deviates little from those for previous years.

Inspection of the ten sample schools shows an almost inverse relationship between the number of Honors students and the number of Special Academic students (see Table 9-8). Deal, which had no Special Academic students, had almost 52% of its students in the Honors curriculum; while Randall and Shaw, with 19% and 30% Special Academic students, respectively, had no Honors students listed. Miller, however, had about 9% of

both groups. When the ten schools were rank ordered for both special curricula, the rank order correlation was -.65.

Even if IQ 120 were considered the lowest point for admission to Honors classes, then approximately 10% of a normal population would be expected to qualify. The fact that only 5.8% did qualify suggests that 1) various criteria other than IQ tended to cut down the number and 2) that the skewed distribution on SES would preclude finding the normally expected number of students at this IQ level.

Table 9-8

Number and Percent of Honors Students
in Each of Grades 7, 8 and 9 in Ten Sample Junior High Schools
as of October, 1966

School	Grade 7 No.	Grade 7 %	Grade 8 No.	Grade 8 %	Grade 9 No.	Grade 9 %	Total No.	Total %	Rank	% White In School
Deal	160	46.0	179	45.8	251	62.0	590	51.8	1	98.0
Eliot	22	5.1	20	4.9	18	5.0	60	5.0	6	0.7
Gordon	57	13.3	39	9.4	40	11.2	136	11.3	4	52.5
Hart	19	2.6	15	2.4	29	5.1	63	3.3	7	16.0
Miller	33	9.0	29	9.0	24	7.5	86	8.6	5	0
Paul	57	15.0	47	13.8	54	17.0	158	14.9	2	8.0
Randall	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	9	2.0
Shaw	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	9	0.5
Taft	73	17.4	29	9.3	30	8.0	137	12.4	3	1.5
Terrell	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	9	0.3

Although there is no breakdown of the Honors population by race, the varied proportions in the predominantly white and predominantly Negro schools indicate that Honors students were drawn disproportionately from the white population. However, Paul, with only 8% of its population white, had almost 15% in Honors, while Hart, with twice as large a proportion of white students, had only about 3% in Honors. Similarly, Miller, with no white pupils, had almost 9% of its students in Honors, while Gordon, which was over 50% white, had only 2% more Honors students. The incidence of Honors students in a school is thus probably less a function of the racial mix in the school than it is a function of the general socio-economic level of the school population. Consequently, the low SES schools, which are also predominantly Negro, have very few or no Honors students, thus decreasing the proportion of Honors students in the Negro population.

Ninth Grade Achievement by Track in the Sample Junior High Schools. Data were available on the mean achievement of each junior high school as of October 1966, and by track (Honors and Regular) as of November 1965, for STEP Reading, STEP Math and SCAT. In addition, 1965 Stanford Achievement Test means in Arithmetic Applications

and in Total Language, as well as TOGA IQ scores, were available for the Special Academic classes.

On the basis of school norms reported for ninth grade in the STEP manuals and the mid-percentile ranks for ninth grade scores on SCAT, the 27 junior high schools showed wide discrepancies in average ability and achievement. On SCAT, average scores ranged from the 84th percentile in Deal to the 12th percentile in Evans and Terrell. The mean for the total ninth grade placed the school system at the 30th percentile. The discrepancies among schools were so large that, in many instances, there was little overlap in the distribution between high and low schools. For example, 50% of the pupils at Terrell scored below the score achieved by 98% of Deal's ninth graders, and less than .1% of Terrell's pupils scored at or above the Deal mean. Even compared to Paul, which was 92% Negro, about 92% of Terrell's ninth grade pupils fell below the Paul mean.

To the extent that SCAT is a useful predictor of other academic achievement, one would have expected similar discrepancies on the STEP measures. Such was, indeed, the case. On reading, Deal fell above the 99th percentile, Terrell at about the 9th, Paul at the 63rd. Once again, there was little overlap between the distributions of reading scores of Terrell (or other comparably low schools) and either Paul or Deal. Although the latter two were quite disparate, about 20% of Paul's pupils did as well as the top half at Deal, and about 16% of the Deal pupils fell below the Paul mean.

Of the 27 junior high schools, the ninth grade STEP Reading means of 20 fell in the lowest quarter by national norms; three (Backus, Kramer and Rabaut) fell between the 25th and 50th percentiles; one (Paul) fell between the 50th and 75th; and three (Deal, Gordon and Jefferson) fell in the top quarter - in fact, above the 90th percentile. Although the entire ninth grade fell at the 17th percentile by national norms, about 16% of all pupils scored above the 75th percentile and about 2% scored at the 99th percentile.

On the STEP Math test, the scores were generally lower than on reading. Citywide, the ninth grade fell at the 15th percentile by national norms, and only four schools scored above the lowest quartile: Backus, Deal, Gordon and Jefferson. The last three scored at or above the 90th percentile, Backus at the 35th. The remaining three schools (Kramer, Rabaut and Paul) which scored between the 25th and 75th percentiles on reading, fell below the 25th on math.

Achievement: Special Academic Curriculum. All of the above discussion dealt with the ninth grade population excluding the Special Academic students, since they were not tested on SCAT or STEP and thus were not included in the school means. Achievement and IQ data on the Special Academic students were available only for the ten sample junior highs, based on Fall 1965 testing.

The mean IQ's of these classes ranged from 68.1 to 76.1. For all classes combined, the mean was 70.7 and the standard deviation 11.1. From these figures, one would have to question the consistency with which the 75 IQ was adhered to as the highest score for recommending a pupil to a Special Academic class. In Hart, for example, the mean was higher than the cut-off point; and for the total sample Special Academic population, one would suspect that about 16% of the pupils had IQ's over 80. (See Table 9-9.)

However, the achievement level of these ninth graders was so far below grade level that their presence in special classes is understandable. If the language scores were normally distributed, one would expect no more than 2% of the pupils to score above grade level 5.9. Two-thirds probably had grade equivalent scores between 2.56 and 4.76. The range of means was from 2.96 at Paul and Terrell to 4.10 at Shaw. The mean

for all classes was 3.67, standard deviation 1.10 (See Table 9-9).

Table 9-9.

Means and Standard Deviations of TOGA IQ Scores and Stanford Achievement Test Grade Equivalents in Total Language and Arithmetic Applications for Ninth Grade Special Academic Curriculum Classes in the Ten Sample Schools (Fall 1965)

School	TOGA IQ			Stanford Achievement Tests: Language			Stanford Achievement Tests: Arithmetic Appl.		
	N	X	S.D.	N	X	S.D.	N	X	S.D.
Deal	-	--	--	-	--	--	-	--	--
Eliot	8	68.1	4.6	17	3.20	1.25	18	3.58	.75
Gordon	6	69.5	5.5	-	--	--	13	4.02	.84
Hart	10	76.1	12.8	10	3.87	1.00	9	4.38	.67
Miller	15	74.9	8.4	17	3.83	.93	17	4.27	1.00
Paul	6	69.2	4.9	10	2.96	.57	10	3.90	.74
Randall	34	69.7	8.7	38	3.50	.86	37	4.00	.98
Shaw	115	70.6	13.7	115	4.10	1.25	121	4.84	1.44
Taft	13	70.8	6.2	21	3.22	.66	18	4.02	1.06
Terrell	29	69.3	6.3	32	2.96	.76	30	4.18	1.00
TOTAL	236	70.7	11.1	260	3.67	1.10	273	4.39	1.24

Arithmetic performance was, on the average, seven months higher than language, with a city-wide mean of 4.39 and a standard deviation of 1.24. About two thirds of the pupils, thus, probably scored between 3.15 and 5.63, and about 2-1/2% scored above 6.87. The range for the sample schools was from 3.58 at Eliot to 4.84 at Shaw.

It is also interesting to note the amount of spread in the various classes. In reading, Eliot and Shaw had a spread of scores at least twice as large as that at Paul or Taft; in arithmetic, five schools showed a spread of a year or more, the other four about six to eight months.

Thus, in the fall of their ninth year, Special Academic pupils were, on the average, in the lowest 3-4% of a normally distributed population on IQ and were retarded about five-and-a-half years in language and about five years in arithmetic. To what extent at least some of these pupils might have performed better if they had been in regular sections was not possible to determine from the available data.

Achievement: Honors Curriculum. Of the ten sample junior high schools, seven had Honors classes in 1965. The number of pupils ranged from 155 in Deal to 21 in Hart. The mean SCAT scores of these classes ranged from the 79th percentile at Eliot and Miller to the 95th percentile at Gordon and the 96th at Deal. Hart and Paul fell at the

88th percentile, Taft at the 84th. (See Table 9-10.)

The gap between the mean SCAT scores of the Honors track and those of the Regular track ranged from 32 percentile points at Deal to 65 percentile points at Eliot. In every instance, the Honors students showed a level of academic ability well beyond the rest of the school. However, there was a considerable spread of scores, and at Deal, for example, about 7% of the Regular students probably had scores as high as the average for the Honors students. In all cases, the Honors mean was at least one standard deviation above the Regular mean, and in some schools two or more standard deviations above the Regular mean, resulting in little overlap between the two distributions.

STEP Reading scores differed even more than SCAT scores between the Honors and the Regular classes. In all seven schools the mean reading scores of the Honors classes were at or above the 99th percentile by national school norms. But when the midpoints of the percentile bands of the individual norms were used, the classes ranged from the 96th percentile at Gordon to the 76th percentile at Miller. In most instances, however, at least 20% of the class scored above the 90th percentile. (See Table 9-10.)

STEP Math scores showed equally wide disparities between Honors and Regular classes, especially when the individual norm midpoints were used to determine percentile rank. The percentile discrepancies ranged from 30 to 57 points, with an average of 54. Thus, in most schools two quarters separated the Honors class(es) from the Regular sections.

Track Changes. The most up-to-date general information on changes in track placement went back to 1964. From June, 1963 to September, 1963 a total of 662 junior high school pupils were rearranged. More than twice as many moved up as moved down. One hundred nine moved up from Regular to Honors and 340 from Special Academic to Regular. One hundred students were moved down from Honors and 113 from Regular to Special Academic. During the following school year (September1963 - June 1964) 503 students were rearranged: 30 were moved from Regular to Honors and 232 from Special Academic to Regular. At the same time, 89 students were moved out of Honors and 152 went from Regular to Special Academic.

Although only a few junior high schools responded to the request for data on track changes, the data which were submitted in June, 1966 show no consistent patterns. For example, Garnet-Patterson reported shifting six students in 1964 and eight in 1966. But while three of the 1964 group were moved down to Special Academic and three up to Regular, in 1966 all eight were moved out of Special Academic into Regular classes. A far greater change was noted at Hine, where in 1964 one pupil was moved down to Basic and two up to Regular: as of September, 1965, 58 students were moved from Special Academic to Regular classes. Woodson, however, where nine students had been re-tracked in 1964 (three out of Honors, one into Honors, and five from Special Academic to Regular), changed only two students, from Special Academic to Regular in September, 1966. Similarly, Stuart moved eight students in 1964 down to Special Academic and seven from there to Regular classes; yet in 1966 Stuart transferred 24 pupils from sixth grade Regular classes into seventh grade Special Academic, and only five from sixth grade Special Academic into seventh grade Regular classes.

Cross-Tracking. At the junior high level, cross-tracking occurred more frequently (but still rarely) in seventh grade than in eighth or ninth. Block programming was the rule, and only where a pupil showed very noticeable ability in a particular subject was he moved to a higher class for that subject. Because the work in the Honors sections tended to be somewhat accelerated, movement into Honors after seventh grade was curtailed by the lack of exposure to prerequisite material.

Curriculum Differences. In general, there is considerable overlap in the texts used in the Honors and Regular classes in a given school. For example, in most eighth

Table 9-10

Means, Standard Deviations*, School Norm Percentiles and/or Midpoint of Percentile Bands of SCAT, STEP Reading and STEP Math Scores for Ninth Grade Honors and Regular Classes in Seven** Sample Junior High Schools (Fall 1965)

		SCAT			STEP Reading				STEP Math			
School	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Mid-pt %ile	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Schl Norm %ile	Mid-pt %ile	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Schl Norm %ile	Mid-pt %ile
Deal H	155	300	9.4	96	297	9.5	99+	89	286	9.1	99+	94
R	241	283	11.1	64	283	15.0	94	56	270	12.3	90	64
Total	396	290	12.4	84	288	--	97	72	277	13.6	99	80
Eliot H	22	289	7.5	79	294	--	99	85	274	9.0	95	75
R	352	265	9.3	15	268	15.3	11	30	254	12.8	04	23
Total	374	266	10.7	20	270	16.1	13	34	255	13.4	11	24
Gordon H	26	298	9.5	95	302	4.6	99+	96	289	6.1	99+	97
R	259	279	13.3	53	279	15.5	63	69	267	13.0	76	53
Total	285	281	13.4	59	280	16.3	87	52	269	14.1	89	59
Hart H	21	292	10.8	88	295	--	99+	85	280	3.4	99+	88
R	331	271	9.9	30	260	12.0	06	20	260	12.0	17	37
Total	352	272	11.1	35	263	15.3	07	30	261	12.8	19	37
Miller H	26	290	--	79	291	--	99	76	279	--	99+	84
R	308	267	9.2	20	269	14.3	13	30	256	12.4	12	27
Total	334	268	11.0	25	271	15.0	15	35	258	13.3	13	33
Paul H	46	292	--	88	296	--	99+	89	279	--	99	84
R	342	272	9.4	35	275	13.9	37	40	260	12.5	17	37
Total	388	274	13.4	41	278	14.8	48	47	263	13.5	20	42
Taft H	27	290	--	84	292	--	99	81	276	--	96	79
R	358	270	9.6	30	272	14.7	17	37	258	11.9	13	33
Total	385	272	10.7	35	274	15.2	22	39	259	12.4	15	34
All Schools												
H	323	296	--	91	296	--	99	--	283	--	99+	91
R	2960	270	--	30	273	--	17	--	260	--	13	37
Total	3279	273	--	35	275	--	28	--	261	--	19	37

* Standard deviations were not available for all of the classes or schools, nor could they be calculated from the available data.

** Only seven of the ten sample schools had Honors classes.

grade science classes the same texts are used at both levels, but some additional books may be added for the Honors students. Only three junior high schools reported any science textbooks for the Special Academic students. At Shaw, the Regular classes used the same texts as were used by three of the five Special Academic sections -- but not in the two lowest ones. The selection and placement of texts varied greatly from school to school. For example "slow learners" used the same text as the other junior high schools' Regular classes.

In eighth grade American History a similar situation prevailed. Some texts were used for Honors and Regular classes, some for Regular and Special Academic. In some schools, different texts were used at each level.

English and developmental reading showed a greater differentiation of materials by track. This was especially true for the Special Academic classes, where grammar books, spelling books and readers differed from those in other tracks. For literature, high-interest-low word-level books were included for the Special Academic classes. The distinction between Honors and Regular was less pronounced, though the former had access to additional material. Judging from textbook lists, the curriculum differed less between Regular and Honors than between Regular and Special Academic. It may be, however, that the pace, the amount covered, the issuance of extra assignments and the number of individual projects varied more widely than book lists suggest.

Conclusions. Evaluation of the achievement data discussed above leads to the conclusion that, certainly by grade nine, the extraordinary range of academic performance would have imposed serious burdens on any teacher assigned to classes which included the entire range. The ninth grade Special Academic students seemed to perform four to five years below grade level, while the Honors students performed at about the mean for twelfth graders on both reading and mathematics. To attempt to gear a program to such different levels of functioning seems completely unrealistic. Unless and until the schools reorganize to provide individual instruction to each pupil, some form of grouping will remain necessary at the junior high school level. To the extent that instruction is individualized, the range of differences will increase.

One could further argue that the maintenance of Honors classes is particularly important in the predominantly lower-class schools. Here, the special "care and feeding" of the most able pupils can help to insure their further pursuit of education. Too often, the few highly successful scholars are lost in the general population and tend to model themselves according to the aspirations and values of the majority. Provision of special status as reward for high achievement may endow such students with indelible aspirations, despite their less successful peers.

The maintenance of Honors classes need in no way preclude the best possible teaching at other levels. Certainly, more flexibility than now occurs is needed for moving into or out of special sections, or for assigning students to Honors classes in one or more but not necessarily all subjects. Destroying the mechanism for challenging the most able students, especially those in the lower SES schools, and failing to reward them for high achievement is likely to lower their incentives for going on to higher education and greater social productivity.

It would probably be wise to establish some Honors classes in all the junior high schools, even if the standards for admission to such classes differ from school to school. This may be one way of beginning early to implement the key concept underlying such programs as "Upward Bound": preparing the more able young people to view themselves as capable of achieving high standards in advanced education now and in the future.

The Special Academic group is probably composed of pupils with a great variety of learning handicaps. Some may suffer from minimal neurological impairment or nutritional deficiencies; others (like the boy with a 116 IQ who reads at a fifth grade level in grade nine) may be emotionally disturbed, "trouble makers," uninterested in schooling despite evidence of academic ability. But many of the pupils are truly retarded, at least by the time they enter school. All of these pupils need help, but that help may not be uniform for all these children. Thus, more careful diagnosis is recommended. Presently, school achievement and individual intelligence scores are the bases on which pupils are placed in the Special Academic classes. Additional diagnostic services should be mandatory, so that the striving but dyslexic youngster is not given the same treatment as the normally capable youngster who is disturbed or withdrawn.

In general, the percentage of pupils enrolled in the Special Academic curriculum is not excessively large in view of the many deprivations suffered by a large proportion of the Washington population. One would expect a larger than normal incidence of underdeveloped perceptual, language and conceptual abilities which place the child at a disadvantage in the early school years and prevent a normal learning pace.

At the Senior High School Level

At the senior high school level, pupils are grouped into four tracks: Honors, Regular, General and Special Academic. In general, procedures for assigning students to the top and bottom tracks were virtually the same as those applied at the junior high school level, and classes at both ends were composed largely of students who were similarly classified in the ninth grade. In one school (Dunbar), fed largely by junior high schools which have no Honors classes, a local Honors track has been established. To what extent the criteria used here differ from those used city-wide is not known.

The Regular curriculum provides a college-oriented program which satisfies all college requirements. All Regular students are expected to follow the program. General students, however, have the option of selecting an academic program or one of several business programs. The former is similar to the Regular, but somewhat less demanding. The business programs include secretarial, marketing, retailing and general business courses.

In several of the high schools, students may select a Regular or General program; in others the determination is made by the school on the basis of junior high performance, test scores, and the recommendations of both junior and senior high counselors. In schools in which there were large numbers of Regular students, within-track ability grouping was also practiced, allowing for "faster" and "slower" Regular sections.

Cross-tracking was available in elective subjects in all schools, but only some allowed extensive track shifts in the basic academic subjects. A student's track is generally determined by the English class in which he is placed. For all other subjects, a student's track may be (although it seldom is) different. Most of the cross-tracking was between Regular and General, since for both the Honors and Special Academic tracks a pre-set curriculum made shifts difficult. Nevertheless, both Wilson and Western maintained that students are individually programmed and can thus be on various levels in their several subjects.

The vocational high schools do not have separate tracks, although some practice ability grouping in the academic subjects. Their programs are comparable to the General track in the academic high schools, offering courses in business, heavy industrial

and light industrial trades as well as some service trades. As of the fall of 1966, 3.4% of senior high school students were enrolled in the Special Academic track; 53.5% in the General track; 37.8 in the Regular track; and 5.5% in the Honors track. The shift in percentages between junior and senior high school (see Table 9-1) indicates the general shift in population. The proportion of Honors students was about the same as in the junior highs, but the number of Special Academic students decreased from 7.5% to 3.4%. The loss of approximately 10,000 students between junior and senior high appears to be accounted for by drop-outs from the Special Academic (about 1,600 students) and General (about 8,000 students) curricula.

Over the years, from 1958-1959 to 1965-1966, the proportion of Special Academic students decreased sharply, going from almost 23% in 1958-1959 to 16% in 1961-1962 to 7.8% in 1965-1966, and to 3.4% in the fall of 1966. Each year saw a smaller number

Table 9-11.

Number and Percent of Special Academic Students
in Each of Grades 10, 11 and 12 in Ten Academic High Schools*
as of Fall, 1966

School	Grade 10 No.	Grade 10 %	Grade 11 No.	Grade 11 %	Grade 12 No.	Grade 12 %	Total Sp.Acad. No.	Total Sp.Acad. %	Total in School
Ballou	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	1475
Cardozo	64	08	34	06	18	04	116	06	1791
Coolidge	14	02	4	--	--	--	18	01	1653
Dunbar	--	--	20	04	30	08	50	03	1514
Eastern	78	06	39	05	36	06	153	06	2580
McKinley	25	03	41	05	9	02	75	03	2296
Roosevelt	20	03	21	05	17	04	58	04	1518
Spingarn	25	03	10	02	17	05	52	03	1675
Western	38	07	19	04	4	01	61	04	1379
Wilson	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	1413
All Schools	264	04	188	03	131	03	583	03.3	17,294

* No data were available for Anacostia.

as well as a smaller proportion of students designated as Special Academic. The Honors enrollment also fluctuated during this period, but the range of fluctuation was smaller (8.6% to 5.5%) and there was no consistent pattern over the years. The high point was in 1961-1962, the low point in 1966-1967.

Special Academic Curriculum. Eight of the ten academic high schools reported the presence of Special Academic classes on at least one grade level. Ballou and Wilson reported no such classes. The proportion of Special Academic students ranged from 8% in Cardozo's tenth and Dunbar's twelfth grade to less than 1% in Western's twelfth grade. Over all schools, the proportion was greater in grade ten than in the two higher grades. At Dunbar, Eastern and Spingarn the proportion increased from eleventh to twelfth grade.

Since the Special Academic curriculum was not listed under Special Education at the high school level as it was at the elementary level, no analyses could be made of the racial composition of the Special Academic track.

Honors Curriculum. As noted in Table 9-1, 5.5% of the senior high school students were enrolled in the Honors curriculum. Of the ten high schools for which information was available (Anacostia had not submitted a breakdown of pupil membership by curriculum), all but Spingarn listed a number of students sufficient for at least one Honors class at a grade level. At Spingarn only three students were listed: it is difficult to understand how their Honors status influences the classes in which they participate. Table 9-12 shows the number and percent of Honors students in each grade ten to twelve for each of the ten schools.

As was true for the junior high schools, the senior high schools also varied considerably in the number and proportion of Honors students. Wilson enrolled about 19% in Honors, Western about 12.5%, Coolidge about 10% and McKinley about 6%. The remaining schools had less than 4% Honors students. There were no consistent differences by grade.

The total population decreased considerably between grades 10 and 11 and between grades 11 and 12 (except at Wilson, where there was a slight increase between grades 10 and 11 and a drop in grade 12). In some schools, the twelfth grade population was only half as large as the tenth. Across all schools, the twelfth grade was about two-thirds as large as the tenth. However, the dropout rate affected Honors students much less than others, since the Honors section had about equal numbers at both grade levels. In fact, the total number of pupils enrolled in Honors in all schools combined was almost identical in tenth and twelfth grades. Seven schools showed a rise in the proportion of Honors students between grades 10 and 12. Dunbar had no tenth and no twelfth grade Honors, but did have 19 pupils so designated at the eleventh grade. Wilson had the same proportion at both points. Spingarn listed a total of three pupils across all three grades.

If the standard cut-off point of IQ 120 was used by the senior highs, the expectation would be for some 10 percent of a normal population to achieve such scores. In fact, since many at the lowest end of the ability distribution would probably have dropped out by grade 10, one would expect an even higher proportion to score about IQ 120. However, only at three schools -- Wilson, Western and Coolidge -- was the expectation met or almost met. In the remaining seven high schools the proportions all fell well below expectation. Thus, either far fewer of the students than expected actually scored at or above the established cut-off point on IQ or else there was a sizable group which did reach the requisite IQ level but whose actual school performance was not sufficiently high to warrant Honors placement.

Since the data showing the relative position of Washington students on the SCAT norms do not indicate the proportion that scored above the top quartile, it is not possible to apply these to estimate how many potential Honors students were eliminated because of the low level of their actual school performance.

Table 9-12

Number and Percent of Honors Students
in Each of Grades 10, 11 and 12 in Ten Academic High Schools*
as of Fall 1966

School	Grade 10 No.	Grade 10 %	Grade 11 No.	Grade 11 %	Grade 12 No.	Grade 12 %	Total Honors No.	Total Honors %	Rank	Total in School	% White
Ballou	18	3	12	2.5	11	4	41	2.8	7	1475	23
Cardozo	14	2	18	3	20	5	52	2.9	6	1791	0
Coolidge	64	10	62	12	58	11	184	10	3	1653	10
Dunbar	--	---	19	4	--	--	19	1.3	9	1514	0
Eastern	19	2	14	2	32	5	65	2.5	8	2580	0
McKinley	40	4	54	6	48	9	142	6.2	4	2296	.6
Roosevelt	18	3	18	4	17	4	53	3.5	5	1518	.7
Spingarn	1	0	2	0	--	--	3	0	10	1675	0
Western	59	10	57	12	56	15.5	172	12.5	2	1379	45
Wilson	85	18	105	21	78	18	268	19.0	1	1413	91
All Schools	318	4.4	361	6	320	7	999	5.7		17,294	

* No data were available for Anacostia.

When the schools were rank-ordered on proportion of Honors students, the two with the highest ranks had the largest proportion of white students. However, Ballou, with the third largest proportion of white students, ranked seventh on Honors; and Coolidge, with only 10 percent white, ranked third. Fourth, fifth and sixth places were held by schools which had less than one percent white pupils. These findings once again reflect the relationship of socio-economic rather than racial factors to academic achievement.

Eleventh Grade Achievement in the Eleven Academic High Schools. Data were available on the mean academic standing of the eleventh grade in each of the high schools as of Fall, 1966, and for the three upper tracks as of April, 1966, on STEP Reading, STEP Math and SCAT. In addition, TOGA IQ and Stanford Achievement test scores in Language and Arithmetic were available for the Special Academic classes. The findings are interpreted below.

General Achievement in the Upper Three Tracks Combined. On the basis of school norms reported in the STEP manuals and the mid-percentile norms for SCAT, there was

great variation among the eleventh grades in the eleven high schools. On SCAT, average school scores ranged from the 87th percentile at Wilson to the 11th at Dunbar. Outside of Wilson, no other high school performed, on the average, at or above the national median. Four of the schools (Dunbar, Eastern, Cardozo and Spingarn) had mean SCAT scores well below the lowest quartile; the remaining six schools ranged between the 28th percentile (Anacostia) and the 42nd (Western).

In both Wilson and Western, half or more of the eleventh grade pupils scored above the national median score (86.5% at Wilson, 50.4% at Western). In the four schools which, on the average, scored below the 25th percentile, less than 25% of the pupils reached the national median (7.7% at Dunbar, 11.8% at Cardozo, 15.9% at Spingarn, and 16.5% at Eastern). At Anacostia, Roosevelt and Ballou, about a quarter of the students reached or exceeded the national median, while at Coolidge and McKinley better than a third achieved such scores. For the city as a whole, less than a third of eleventh graders reached or exceeded the national median score.

On the achievement measures (using school norms) even greater discrepancies were noted. STEP Reading means ranged from the 99th percentile at Wilson to the 9th percentile at Dunbar. Four schools, the same schools which fell below the lowest quartile (25th percentile) on SCAT, scored below the 25th percentile on STEP Reading; but two schools, Coolidge and McKinley, scored, on the average, above the national median, and Western above the 75th percentile. The remaining three schools had mean scores between the 30th and 39th percentiles.

In reading, the proportion of pupils who scored at or above the national median was considerably higher than for SCAT. In only two schools (Dunbar and Cardozo) did less than 25% of the students rank above the national median. At Western almost 60% and at Coolidge 53% of the students read at levels equivalent to the levels reached by the upper 50% of the national norm group. At McKinley, Anacostia, Ballou and Roosevelt, between 40 and 49 percent of the pupils attained or exceeded the national median; at Spingarn and Eastern, 36 and 29 percent, respectively, attained these scores. For all the high schools combined, 44% of the students scored above the median, only 6% less than in the norming sample. But at those schools in which less than 25% achieved scores at or above the national median, almost half scored below the 25th percentile, while at Wilson only 5% of eleventh graders scored below the 25th percentile.

On STEP Math, only Wilson and Western scored, on the average, above the lowest quartile (98th and 46th percentiles, respectively). All the other schools ranged from the 8th to the 18th percentile. Math scores generally fell well below reading scores. While at Wilson 81% of the students scored above the median, the next highest school was Western, with only 47%. In five schools, less than 25% of the students reached the levels normally attained by half the population. In fact, city-wide, 44% of the students fell below the 25th percentile on the national math norms -- about one and a half times as many as in reading.

Achievement: Special Academic Curriculum. The achievement levels discussed above did not take into consideration the Special Academic students, since they took neither SCAT nor STEP. TOGA IQ and Stanford Language and Arithmetic mean scores were available for seven of the nine schools in which there were Special Academic classes (Wilson had no Special Academic class; for Anacostia and Roosevelt no data were available).

The mean IQ of the Special Academic classes ranged from 70 at Dunbar to 84 at Western. For the seven schools combined, the mean was almost 77. It is apparent, therefore, that the 75 IQ generally considered the maximum score for admitting pupils to Special Academic classes was adhered to even less at the senior high than at the junior

high level. In fact, for all schools except Dunbar the mean IQ was higher than 75. With a standard deviation of about 11 points for all schools combined, one would expect that about 15 to 20% of the students enrolled in the Special Academic classes had IQ's of 87 or higher -- generally considered well within the normal range. In fact, at Ballou and Western at least some of the Special Academic students had IQ's above 90 (93.5 and 94.2, respectively). To what extent the high means were a function of dropping scores which fell "below scale" is not known. However, the inclusion of such scores would have acted to increase the spread, and therefore would make little difference in the interpretation of the proportion of students who fell in the "normal" range. One must conclude that actual achievement rather than IQ determined the Special Academic placement of a sizable number of students with normal aptitude. This contention was borne out by the Stanford scores. On language, the average grade level attained by all the Special Academic students was 4.9; on arithmetic it was about a year higher. The highest-scoring Special Academic class, at Western, fell on the average about five years below grade level in arithmetic, six years below in language. It would appear, therefore, that at least some eleventh grade students with average academic ability performed at levels well below expectation. Since there are no data available on the point in their school careers at which these students were entered into Special Academic classes, it is not possible to judge to what extent their low performance may have been a function of low expectations set in the Special Academic curriculum. It is possible that some of these students may have been suffering from specific disabilities which interfered with school learning. For example, one boy at McKinley High School had an IQ of 91 in ninth grade, scored 77 in eleventh grade and was reading at a 2.7 level and performing in arithmetic at a 3.2 level in grade eleven. Such a boy might well have been handicapped neurologically.

One thing was clear, however. Out of a random sample of 111 students from ten regular high schools who were in Special Academic classes both in ninth and in eleventh grade, 16% had eleventh grade IQ scores above 80. Of these, about 60% scored at or above 85 and a third at or above 90. In view of the fact that most of these pupils had recorded IQ scores below 80 in ninth grade, the senior high schools simply accepted the junior high scores, and some students with demonstrated ability in the normal range were retained in Special Academic classes in which, by and large, they had made scant progress: about 6-1/2 months in reading and less than 3 months in arithmetic during the two year period. Actually, of the 17 students with IQ's over 80, seven showed losses from two months to one year and three months in arithmetic. Certainly, for these pupils the Special Academic curriculum did not provide an adequate learning situation: they either marked time or deteriorated. Only one out of the 17, a boy with an eleventh grade IQ of 87, made noteworthy gains during the two years: 2.0 years in reading and 3.6 in arithmetic.

By the time many of the Special Academic students enter the senior high school, they are so far behind their schoolmates that placement in regular classes may impose great difficulties on them and on their teachers. Nonetheless, it is doubtful that the Special Academic curriculum as now constituted is a useful substitute. One possible alternative would be to place these students in regular classes and provide them with individual or small group tutoring for part of their school day. Such assistance should, optimally, begin long before entry into high school; but for those now coming in, some special help rather than relegation to the Special Academic classes should be devised.

Achievement: Three Upper Tracks. Inspection of the average percentile levels achieved by eleventh grade students in the three tracks in the various high schools revealed great variability. (See Table 9-14.) It became apparent that, whatever common criteria were theoretically in operation, school placement by track was also affected

in practice by the performance level of the local school population. For example, the Honors curriculum students at Cardozo achieved a slightly lower mean Reading score and a far lower Math score than the Regular students at Wilson. At Western, too, the Regular classes equalled or exceeded the Cardozo Honors classes. And both at Wilson and at Western the General students, on the average, equalled or even excelled the Regular students at Cardozo, Dunbar, Eastern and Spingarn.

On the basis of school norms, all the Honors students (except at Cardozo) achieved mean scores on reading and math at or above the 95th percentile. However, when assessed on the basis of midpoint percentiles, only at Ballou, Western, Wilson, and Spingarn (where there was only one Honors student) did Honors classes reach or exceed the 90th percentile.

Regardless of the actual level of attainment of the Honors classes in the various schools, the gap between the Honors and Regular sections was considerable. For example, for all schools combined on STEP Math, using school norms, there was an average difference between Honors and Regular classes of 42 percentile points. But the range was from 82 percentile points at Eastern to only 2 percentile points at Wilson. On Reading the gap was smaller, but still ranged from 41 points at Cardozo to less than one percentile point at Wilson. Thus, the Honors sections, expecially in the relatively low-

Table 9-13

Means and Standard Deviations of TOGA IQ Scores
and Stanford Achievement Test Grade Equivalents
in Total Language and Arithmetic Applications
for Eleventh Grade Special Academic Curriculum Classes
in Seven* Regular High Schools (April, 1966)

				Stanford Achievement Tests					
	TOGA IQ			Language			Arithmetic		
School	N**	X	S.D.	N	X	S.D.	N	X	S.D.
Ballou	24	76.4	17.1	27	4.6	1.0	22	5.9	1.3
Cardozo	18	75.9	7.7	23	5.8	1.0	21	6.0	1.2
Dunbar	27	70.0	4.8	31	3.9	.78	27	5.4	1.2
Eastern	31	77.1	8.8	34	5.7	1.3	34	5.8	1.2
McKinley	14	77.5	7.4	16	5.0	.98	19	5.5	1.1
Spingarn	31	78.2	11.3	39	5.0	1.2	42	5.9	1.1
Western	16	83.3	10.4	15	5.9	1.2	20	6.7	1.5
All Schools	161	76.6	10.9	185	4.9	1.4	185	5.9	1.22

* No information was available on Anacostia, Coolidge or Roosevelt. Wilson reported no Special Academic classes.

** Students whose scores fell below scale were excluded.

Table 9-14

Means, Standard Deviations*, School Norm Percentiles and/or Midpoint of Percentile Bands of SCAT, STEP Reading and STEP Math Scores for Eleventh Grade Honors, Regular and General Classes in Nine** Senior High Schools (Fall 1966)

		SCAT				STEP Reading					STEP Math				
School		N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Midpt %ile	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Schl Norm %ile	Midpt %ile	N	$\bar{X}$	S.D.	Schl Norm %ile	Midpt %ile
Ballou	H	14	305	6.7	93	13	312	5.2	99+	90	14	292	10.8	99+	91
	R	143	289	11.2	59	132	297	13.9	76	63	151	273	14.4	57	45
	G	198	275	9.1	21	171	284	13.4	23	36	198	264	13.7	11	24
	Total	355	282	--	38	316	291	--	28	49	363	269	--	20	34
Cardozo	H	23	291	12.8	67	21	303	12.3	98	75	22	275	9.0	73	48
	R	168	279	11.0	30	154	289	13.0	57	45	166	265	16.0	13	24
	G	236	267	9.3	08	195	275	14.9	07	21	226	253	15.7	03	11
	Total	427	267	--	09	370	282	--	18	32	414	259	--	08	19
Coolidge	H	55	304	6.7	93	51	315	6.7	99++	93	51	287	5.7	99	79
	R	298	286	10.1	53	296	299	13.5	90	66	288	271	14.7	34	40
	G	157	273	9.3	17	153	284	13.2	23	36	154	259	16.4	08	19
	Total	510	284	--	42	500	296	--	86	62	493	269	--	20	34
Dunbar	H	0	-	--	--	0	-	--	--	--	0	-	--	--	--
	R	93	282	10.4	42	93	283	19.9	20	33	92	267	14.7	16	29
	G	248	267	9.1	08	267	272	15.0	05	18	268	255	15.3	03	14
	Total	341	271	--	14	360	275	--	06	21	360	258	--	07	18
Eastern	H	28	299	8.6	84	29	305	10.1	99+	79	29	284	11.7	96	74
	R	243	277	12.1	25	275	292	11.5	66	53	275	266	14.5	14	29
	G	259	271	9.9	14	271	280	13.5	14	29	268	259	15.9	08	19
	Total	530	275	--	21	575	289	--	57	45	572	264	--	11	24
McKinley	H	50	305	9.0	93	49	311	9.1	99++	87	48	289	10.6	99+	84
	R	289	288	8.9	59	275	299	12.6	95	66	286	273	13.8	57	45
	G	271	259	9.8	03	252	259	16.6	01	07	252	259	16.6	08	19
	Total	610	277	--	25	576	285	--	23	36	586	268	--	18	33
Spingarn	H	1	311	--	97	1	313	--	99++	91	1	296	--	99+	95
	R	69	286	10.2	53	64	297	12.9	93	63	66	273	14.2	57	45
	G	316	274	10.0	21	324	284	14.0	23	36	318	260	15.6	09	19
	Total	386	276	--	25	389	286	--	30	40	385	262	--	10	21
Western	H	57	315	7.4	99	58	315	9.1	99++	93	58	293	9.0	99+	91
	R	208	293	10.4	70	212	302	12.4	98	74	204	280	12.8	93	65
	G	114	277	10.4	25	103	286	12.4	30	40	98	266	16.5	14	29
	Total	379	290	--	65	373	300	--	95	71	360	278	--	91	59
Wilson	H	85	314	7.7	99	79	318	7.9	99++	95	87	300	9.6	99++	98
	R	335	298	12.2	84	329	305	14.6	99	79	341	285	12.8	98	74
	G	18	281	9.2	36	19	284	5.7	24	36	19	265	15.8	13	24
	Total	438	300	--	87	427	306	--	99	81	447	288	--	99	83
All Schls	H	313	306	--	95	301	313	--	99++	91	310	291	--	99	88
	R	1846	286	--	53	1830	298	--	94	66	1869	274	--	57	48
	G	1817	270	--	11	1755	277	--	08	24	1801	259	--	08	19
	Total	3976	280	--	36	3886	289	--	57	45	3980	268	--	18	33

* Standard deviations could not be obtained for total school populations.

** No data were available for Anacostia or Roosevelt.

achieving schools, did indeed represent a population which was actually performing at a far higher level than the rest of the grade, especially in Mathematics. In fact, at Ballou, Coolidge, McKinley and Spingarn, the Honors students on the average ranked in the top quarter on national norms in Math, while the mean for the Regular students fell 5 or 10 percentile points below the national mean. At Cardozo and Eastern, where the Honors classes were below the top quartile on STEP Math (using individual midpoint percentile norms), the Regular classes scored, on the average, close to or below the lowest quartile.

Patterns of differences in the achievement of Regular and General students also varied from school to school. In those schools in which the level of attainment was high, the difference between the Regular and General students was greater than that between the Honors and Regular. Where the level of the school was low, the Honors section stood far apart from the Regular classes, and the latter were not very different from the General classes. For example, at Wilson the Regular students scored only 15 percentile points below the Honors students on SCAT and, using school norms, one point below on STEP Reading and about two on STEP Math. The General students, however, fell 48, 75 and 85 percentile points, respectively, below the Regular students on the three tests. But at Eastern, the mean for the Honors students exceeded the Regular mean by 59 and 82 percentile points, respectively, on SCAT and STEP Math, while the General students scored only 11 and 6 percentile points below the Regular students on these two tests. These differences in pattern were most marked on the STEP Math tests, least on STEP Reading. The smallest differences between Regular and General on both achievement tests together were seen at Dunbar, where there were no Honors students. Only 15 and 13 percentile points, respectively, separated the means of the Regular and General students on STEP Reading and STEP Math. The largest Reading difference was at McKinley - 94 percentile points; the largest Math difference was at Wilson - 85 percentile points.

On both achievement measures, the Honors classes tended to show less variability than the classes in the other two tracks. The General track classes, by and large, had the widest spread of scores, except at Wilson, where the standard deviation for Generals in Reading was the lowest of the three. These differences in spread were in part a function of the number of students in the several tracks, but not completely. At Wilson, for example, the 19 General students showed considerably greater variability in Math (S.D.=15.8) than did the 87 Honors students (S.D.=9.6). Students in the General curriculum covered a wide range of ability and achievement, in most instances overlapping considerably with the performance of the Regular students. This finding would underscore the degree to which the student's determination of his future academic plans (going on to college or other higher education) influenced his track placement. On the basis of a weighted average of the separate school standard deviations as an estimate of the variability of General students in all schools, about 16% of these students probably scored at or above the mean for the Regular track on Mathematics. In Reading, there was less of an overlap, with only about 8% of General students achieving a reading level equivalent to the average for the Regular track.

In summary, student performance as measured by the STEP Reading and Math tests was consistently different by track. The degree of difference varied from school to school. In some schools the disparity between Honors and Regular was greater than that between Regular and General, in others the reverse was true. Except for Wilson, there was somewhat greater overlap between Regular and General than between Regular and Honors. This was more true for Math than for Reading.

Track Changes. The latest complete data on track changes were compiled in 1962-1963. Later data were available from individual schools. In all senior high schools,

from 1962 to 1963, 393 students were moved up (157 from Special Academic to General, 19 from Special Academic to Regular, 140 from General to Regular and 77 from Regular to Honors). Only 279 students were moved down (105 from Honors to Regular, 3 from Honors to General, 135 from Regular to General and 36 from General to Special Academic). Thus, a total of 672 students were involved in track changes, about 400 fewer than in the preceding year.

More recent data (Fall, 1966) were available from Ballou and Cardozo high schools. In the first, a total of 49 students were re-tracked: 12 students were moved up (4 from General to Regular and 8 from Special Academic to General) and 37 were moved down (2 from Honors to Regular and 35 from Regular to General). This extent of change may well have been typical for the system as a whole, since it did not deviate greatly from the average per school in 1963.

Cardozo represents an atypical example, since a large number (115) of students were moved from General to Regular as a result of the Upward Bound Project which was operating in that school. A total of 227 students were re-tracked -- most of them in the eleventh grade. About 10% of the students were shifted in grades ten and twelve, and about 20% of the students in grade eleven. Across all grades, 214 students were moved up (41 from Special Academic to General, 166 from General to Regular, and 7 from Regular to Honors) and 13 were moved down (five from General to Special Academic, one from Regular to Special Academic, 2 from Regular to General, and 5 from Honors to Regular.

Typically, about 10% of the students seemed to be moved from track to track, with more moves up than down. Most of the changes occurred between Regular and General, few between Honors or Special Academic and the other tracks. Special projects such as Upward Bound obviously increase this percentage considerably. However, there are no data available thus far upon which to assess the effects of upward track mobility on the performance or aspirations of the students who are thus moved.

Cross-Tracking. As noted earlier, a student's track is generally determined by the English class in which he is placed. Theoretically, students may attend other subject classes in tracks other than the one to which they are assigned. Practically, however, this procedure is largely limited to elective subjects not prescribed by the specific curriculum, or to shifts between Regular and General courses. However, in some high schools cross-tracking is possible (and practiced) in the major academic courses as well. Some schools reported individually designed programs such that, theoretically, a student could be programmed, for example, for Honors English, Regular Science and perhaps General Math. In general, there was less cross-tracking for Honors and Special Academic students than for the rest, since the requirements of the two "extreme" curricula were generally more clearly set than the Regular and General curricula.

Conclusions. Tracking at the senior high school level in Washington appears to differ little from the kind of ability grouping generally found in metropolitan high schools. Most such schools have honor classes or at least some designation for classes which perform at high academic levels. In some schools, Advanced Placement courses are offered; in others, there are so-called "enriched" programs. But few large high schools operate today without some special provision for the academically talented or gifted students. Conversely, truly retarded students who remain in school past grade nine are also provided for in some kind of special program such as the CRMD program in New York City or the EMR program in Chicago. Further, some large city systems not only distinguish between a regular (college preparatory) and a general program, but actually issue different diplomas at the completion of senior high school.

What distinguishes the Washington program from most other city programs is the establishment of rigid, city-wide criteria which, at least theoretically, determine membership in one or another curriculum. Actually, Washington high schools have introduced considerable flexibility in the operation of the tracking system, so that it has come to resemble the patterns of grouping more typical for other systems. For example, the Honors section at Cardozo falls well below Honors sections at Western or Wilson -- in fact, their average Math achievement even falls below the national median. But for that school it apparently represents the most able and probably the most motivated students. Besides, as can be seen from Table 13, they rank far above the Regular track students and perform at a fairly high level in Reading. The establishment of an Honors section in Dunbar at the eleventh grade level is another indication of the increasing flexibility in the tracking procedures and the increasing autonomy of each school in setting criteria.

As noted above, the two middle tracks tend to show considerable overlap in achievement and probably represent divergent aspirations as much as differential academic ability or performance. On the basis of reports from the schools, it would appear that the students in the two intermediate tracks have more cross-track opportunities and that some General students even qualify for college admission.

The Special Academic track, at least by eleventh grade, was very small indeed. But even here, there was considerable variability in student ability and performance. Reading grade equivalents ranged from second to ninth grade, and arithmetic reasoning from third to ninth. However, the Special Academic students, on the average were about six years below grade level in language, four years below in arithmetic. One wonders, however, how much farther behind these pupils actually were than many who enrolled in the General track. Since the tests administered to the Special Academic students and to the rest of the population were not comparable (Stanford Achievement vs. STEP), direct comparisons cannot be made. However, one could estimate that in Reading about 8% of the General students scored at a level equivalent to the average for fifth grade pupils, while in Math about 16% of the General students scored at that level. Thus the differences between the upper Special Academic group and the lower General group were very small, indeed: far smaller than those between the upper General and lower Regular students.

The Teachers View the Track System

A set of items on the teacher questionnaire assessed their views on tracking, including procedures for assigning students and teachers. Principals responded to some of the same items on a parallel questionnaire. There is little doubt that the teachers in the District of Columbia School system are dissatisfied with the track system. In answer to the direct question -- "How satisfied are you with the tracking system as it is now operating...?" -- three of five teachers said they are more or less dissatisfied. This dissatisfaction prevails at all three school levels. On the other hand, the principals by and large are satisfied with the present operation. (See Table 9-15.)

Attitudes toward the operation of the track system are strikingly different between the two racial groups, both teachers and principals. A majority of whites at each school level are quite satisfied with the tracking. A large majority of Negroes at each level are not satisfied. (See Table 9-16.)

The particular track with which the teacher spends most of his time affects the degree of satisfaction. The teachers of the "Regular" and of the "Honors" tracks also tend to be less dissatisfied with the system than are the teachers of the lower two tracks -- "General" and "Special Academic." (See Table 9-17.) Since Negro teachers

Table 9-15

Teacher and Principal* Satisfaction with Tracking, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=115 %	Teachers N=645 %	Principals N=68 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=137 %
Extremely satisfied	3	19	3	16	5	11
Very satisfied	7	25	10	25	9	33
Quite satisfied	23	36	24	40	25	47
Not so satisfied	44	19	42	16	39	8
Not satisfied at all	17	--	17	3	15	--
No answer	6	1	4	1	7	5

* Principals and assistant principals combined at each level.

are more likely to teach the lower tracks, the racial imbalance is highlighted for the two extremes. (See Table 9-18.) A Special Academic class is seven times more likely to have a Negro teacher than it is to have a white teacher. Pupils, by contrast, in an Honors class are twice as likely to be taught by a white teacher than by a Negro teacher.

Table 9-18

Teachers of Special Academic and Honors Tracks, By Race

	Special Academic N=125 %	Honors N=71 %
Negro	88	35
White	12	66

Track Preference and Track Best Prepared to Teach

What are the sources of teachers' dissatisfaction with tracking? Is the dissatisfaction with their own or with the students' assignment to tracks? Many more teachers are teaching the lower tracks than either prefer to teach them or feel trained to teach them (Table 9-19).

By and large, the teachers are not indignant over the factors that are considered in assigning youngsters to particular tracks. Teachers might be expected to believe that the largest discrepancy between actual and ideal practice is related to their own influence (or lack of influence) in the decision making process. When asked directly

Table 9-16

Satisfaction With The Tracking System, By Race And Level

	Elementary				Junior High School				Senior High School			
	Teachers		Principals		Teachers		Principals		Teachers		Principals	
	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White
	N=548 %	N=122 %	N=49 %	N=34 %	N=449 %	N=132 %	N=49 %	N=18 %	N=402 %	N=315 %	N=21 %	N=13 %
Extremely or very satisfied	7	30	39	62	10	27	27	78	5	30	24	77
Quite satisfied	22	34	45	15	22	28	47	22	20	35	62	23
Not too or not at all satisfied	71	36	16	23	68	45	26	--	75	35	14	--

Table 9-17

Satisfaction With The Tracking System, by Track and Level

	Special Academic	General	Regular	Honors
ELEMENTARY	N=56* %	N=175 %	N=337 %	N=26* %
Extremely satisfied and very satisfied	11	12	11	31
Quite satisfied	21	21	26	31
Not too satisfied and not satisfied at all	68	67	63	38
JUNIOR HIGH	N=66* %	N=82* %	N=378 %	N=25* %
Extremely satisfied and very satisfied	9	15	14	24
Quite satisfied	18	18	28	24
Not too satisfied and not satisfied at all	73	67	58	52
SENIOR HIGH	N=16* %	N=353 %	N=267 %	N=19* %
Extremely satisfied and very satisfied	-	12	22	36
Quite satisfied	31	25	29	32
Not too satisfied and not satisfied at all	69	63	49	32

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table 9-19

Track Preferred and Track Best Prepared to Teach, by Level

	Elementary N=741		Junior High N=647		Senior High N=821	
	Preferred %	Prepared %	Preferred %	Prepared %	Preferred %	Prepared %
Special Academic	5	3	6	5	2	2
General	11	12	4	4	13	11
Regular	57	59	47	51	44	45
Honors	11	10	27	24	22	22
No Answer	16	16	16	16	19	20

whether or not "you are usually given adequate voice" in assigning pupils to tracks, the average teacher or the secondary level did, in fact, say "no." Less than half of the teachers on the elementary level, however, said that they did not participate enough in the assignment of pupils to tracks.

Table 9-20

Adequacy of Role in Track Decisions, by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=645 %	Senior High N=821 %
Given adequate voice	51	29	32
Not given adequate voice	39	61	56
No answer	10	10	12

The teachers were given a list of factors and asked to check, first, those which they thought <u>are</u> given--and, secondly, those which they thought <u>should be</u> given--consideration in assigning pupils to tracks. In their opinion, there are inequities between the actual and the ideal considerations in track assignment. Teachers at all three levels tend to think that principals and parents are given more voice in the assignment of pupils than they should be given: principals are the greater offenders at the elementary level; parents at the senior high school level. Sizeable proportions of junior and senior high school teachers also believe that the judgment of teachers is not given so much consideration as it should be.

More teachers at all three levels believe that the pupils' potential scholastic level should be given consideration than believe that, in practice, it is considered. But teachers feel that the pupils' behavior should not be considered in track assignment as often as it is (Table 9-22).

Despite these discrepancies between the actual and the ideal considerations, dissatisfaction with the methods of assigning pupils to tracks do not seem to be sufficient

in themselves to account for the strong and pervasive dissatisfaction with the tracking system.

Table 9-21

Factors in Assignment to Track, By Level

	Elementary N=741		Junior High N=645		Senior High N=821	
	(1) %	(2) %	(1) %	(2) %	(1) %	(2) %
Reading level	74	75	74	75	67	69
Teacher's judgment	66	73	52	67	49	66
Present scholastic achievement	63	72	70	79	71	78
I.Q.	61	59	79	67	75	65
Principal's judgment	57	28	46	25	35	21
Potential scholastic achievement	46	60	56	73	59	73
Pupil behavior	43	32	38	26	28	17
Counselor's judgment	38	35	65	58	69	55
Pupil's level of aspiration	28	38	24	40	42	50
Parent's wishes	22	7	33	16	48	21
Socioeconomic status	18	12	21	11	20	8
Parent's pressure*	17	8	24	*	36	*
Race	9	2	7	2	12	2
Pupil's wishes	6	10	15	22	32	36
Friendship patterns	6	6	9	7	7	5

* This item was not included in the list of factors which "should be" considered.
(1) Factors which are considered
(2) Factors which should be considered

Teacher dissatisfaction with the tracking system seems to be based more upon concern over pupils in the lower than in the higher tracks. The teachers were asked to give each of two statements a label ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree." The statements were:

(1) High academic standards are maintained for the able students in my school, and

(2) The curriculum in my school meets the needs of underprivileged and culturally deprived children.

The opinions expressed are contained in Table 9-23.

Table 9-22

Discrepancies of 10% or More Between Factors Which Are Considered Too Much and Factors Which Are Considered Too Little

	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High
CONSIDERED TOO MUCH			
Principal's judgment	29%	21%	14%
Parent's wishes	15	17	27
Pupil behavior	11	14	11
I.Q.	*	12	10
SES	*	10	12
Race	*	*	10
CONSIDERED TOO LITTLE			
Potential scholastic achievement	14	17	14
Pupil's level of aspiration	10	16	8
Teacher's judgment	7	15	17

Table 9-23

	High Standards are Maintained for the Able			Needs of Under-Privileged are Met		
	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
Strongly agree	12	17	21	7	7	5
Agree	41	42	43	34	26	22
?	27	18	15	15	15	16
Disagree	12	16	13	29	31	33
Strongly disagree	4	5	5	13	19	21
No answer	4	2	3	2	2	3

About one teacher in five feels that high academic standards are not maintained for the bright student in her school. On the other hand, almost half of the teachers believe that their school is failing to meet the needs of the disadvantaged youngsters. A cross-tabulation of the answers of those teachers who have an opinion about the needs both of the able and of the underprivileged is found in Table 9-24. Some teachers obviously believe that their school is meeting the needs of the "Regular" and "Honors" students at the expense of, or regardless of, the needs of the pupils in the special academic track.

Table 9-24

Opinions About the "Able" and the "Underprivileged"

	Elementary N=677 %	Junior High N=592 %	Senior High N=736 %
School meets needs of both	29	28	21
School meets needs of able only	18	25	33
School meets needs of under-privileged only	3	3	3
School meets needs of neither	11	17	14

The teachers in the D. C. school system are by no means of one mind with respect to the needs (and the abilities) of the disadvantaged as represented by the pupils in the SAC track and, to a lesser extent, in the general track. The great majority of teachers believe that pupils in the basic track are "teachable": over 80% of the teachers on all three school levels disagree with the statement, "Pupils in the Special Academic track are mainly unteachable." Also, about half of the teachers disagreed with the statement: "On the average, students in the Special Academic group cannot be taught to achieve beyond the fifth or sixth grade levels." Or stated positively, half of the teachers are convinced that the pupils in the special academic track can reach a mental age of over eleven or twelve.

Teachers are inclined to agree rather than to disagree with the statement: "For the most part, students learn a great deal from remedial courses." Teachers in elementary school have a somewhat more optimistic view of the effects of remedial courses than do teachers at the senior high school level. About 40 percent of the elementary school teachers and about 50 percent of the junior and senior high school teachers say that they agree that "on the average, high school graduates from the special academic group will become good citizens." Most of the other teachers do not disagree; they simply say that they do not know.

Table 9-25

Benefit of Remedial Courses, by Level

	Elementary N=713 %	Junior High N=619 %	Senior High N=780 %
Agree	55	52	45
Don't know	34	36	39
Disagree	11	12	16

By and large, then, the teachers in Washington either are convinced that, or else reserve judgment as to whether, pupils in the special academic group:

- are teachable;
- can be taught to achieve beyond sixth grade level;
- learn a great deal from remedial courses; and
- will become good citizens.

By contrast, the teachers are divided on the issue of the probability of students' getting "frozen" in the SAC track. The statement was: "Once a student is placed in a Special Academic group he stands little chance of getting into a higher group." The proportions who agreed and disagreed are split as in Table 9-26.

Table 9-26

Permanence of Positioning in a Special Academic Group

	Elementary N=722 %	Junior High N=627 %	Senior High N=788 %
Agree	48	39	33
Don't know	18	18	18
Disagree	34	43	39

Teachers in the elementary schools are more likely to believe that commitment to a Special Academic group is a "life sentence" while teachers in the senior high schools tend to believe that pupils who have been placed in the SAC track may be promoted out of it.

At all three school levels, Negroes are more likely than whites to believe that, "Once in a SAC track, always in a SAC track." The greater proportion of Negroes among elementary than among secondary school teachers may help to account for the relatively high incidence of the belief in being "frozen" at the elementary level.

Table 9-27

Permanence of Positioning in a Special Academic Group, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=563 %	White N=129 %	Negro N=462 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=425 %	White N=322 %
Agree	54	22	42	23	41	21
Don't know	19	12	18	20	17	20
Disagree	27	66	40	57	42	59

A majority of the teachers are not convinced that all of the students whom they themselves teach are in the "right" track in which they belong.

Table 9-28

Placement of Your Students in the Wrong Ability Group, by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
None Misplaced	27	15	13
Some Misplaced	35	54	53
Work is too hard for some	35	47	51
Work is too easy for some	15	36	32
Don't Know	13	15	14
No answer	25	16	20

A large proportion (about one-third) of teachers did not answer the question or said that they "don't know" about the misplacement of their students with regard to ability grouping.

Table 9-29

Placement of Your Students in the Wrong Ability Group, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=444 %	White N=93* %	Negro N=399 %	White N=114 %	Negro N=342 %	White N=281 %
None Misplaced	35	43	19	12	15	17
Some Misplaced	48	45	63	73	64	73
Work too hard	48	38	55	64	56	73
Work too easy	19	24	41	51	41	39
Don't Know	17	12	18	15	21	10

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

As the table above suggests, more teachers at the high school than at the elementary level believe that some of their students have been misplaced. And, at all three levels, more teachers believe that the work is too hard for some of their students than believe that the students find the work too easy.

The Negro teachers are slightly more likely at the elementary school level than are the white teachers to believe that some of their pupils are placed in a track where the work is too hard. At the senior high school level, the situation is reversed: The white teachers are more likely than are the Negro teachers to feel that some of their students are in a track where the work is too hard. Over-all, however, both races at all three school levels feel that the work is too hard.

Table 9-30

Proportion of Your Students in Wrong Ability Group, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=444 %	White N=93* %	Negro N=399 %	White N=114 %	Negro N=342 %	White N=281 %
Work too <u>hard</u> for 5% or more	25	22	36	48	35	54
Work too <u>easy</u> for 5% or more	10	10	25	24	23	24

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

When we turn to the <u>proportion</u> of students believed to be in a track that requires too little or too much work, we find that just over one-third of the Negro teachers and half of the white teachers on the high school level feel that at least 5% of their students are placed in too hard a track. There is no difference between the races in the proportion of teachers who feel that the work is too hard for at least 5% of their pupils.

For three of the four tracks--as well as for all three levels and for both races--Washington teachers are much more likely to say that schoolwork is too hard than they are to say that it is too easy for their students. The basic academic track is the exception. This is the only track where the teachers are discomfited by the <u>easiness</u> of the school work almost as often as they are by the <u>difficulty</u> of the schoolwork.

Table 9-31

Placement of Your Students in the Wrong Ability Group, by Track and Level

	Special Academic	General	Regular	Honors
ELEMENTARY	N=42* %	N=149 %	N=274 %	N=21* %
None misplaced	26	31	39	33
Some misplaced	53	55	46	53
Work too hard	43	52	48	43
Work too easy	33	16	19	24
Don't know	21	14	15	14
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL	N=55* %	N=72* %	N=348 %	N=24* %
None misplaced	20	17	19	4
Some misplaced	65	55	65	96
Work too hard	55	51	56	83
Work too easy	45	44	41	50
Don't know	15	28	16	-
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL	N=12* %	N=313 %	N= 42 %	N=18* %
None misplaced	8	18	16	11
Some misplaced	75	64	72	89
Work too hard	50	61	71	78
Work too easy	50	45	31	33
Don't know	17	18	12	-

*Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table 9-32

Proportion of Your Students in the Wrong Ability Group, by Track and Level

	Special Academic	General	Regular	Honors
Elementary	N=42* %	N=149 %	N=274 %	N=21* %
Work too hard for 5% or more of students	24	30	24	24
Work too easy for 5% or more of students	21	9	8	5
Junior High	N=55* %	N=72* %	N=348 %	N=24* %
Work too hard for 5% or more of students	42	36	38	62
Work too easy for 5% or more of students	29	28	23	21
Senior High	N=12* %	N=313 %	N=242 %	N=18* %
Work too hard for 5% or more of students	33	45	46	39
Work too easy for 5% or more of students	42	26	17	11

*Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Except at the senior high school level, teachers even of the special academic track are more likely to be disturbed by the difficulty than by the ease of the class assignments.

Recommendations Regarding Grouping

The foregoing indicates quite clearly that the tracking system as theoretically enunciated by Dr. Hansen and approved by the Board of Education is as often observed in the breach as it is in adherence to its basic tenets. Although the tracking practices by no means account for the grave difficulties in which the Washington schools presently find themselves, there are sufficient inequities, inconsistencies and inadequacies in the tracking plan to warrant its abandonment. Thus, the first recommendation is that any form of a city-wide tracking, based on pre-determined city-wide criteria be abolished and that other plans for coping with the great range of pupil abilities, aptitudes, motivations and interests be substituted.

One of our recommendations is that the District consider reorganization into a 6-5-4 plan: a primary unit to include three year olds through grade 3; an intermediate unit to include grades 4 through 8, and a high school unit to include grades 9 through 12. Separate recommendations will be made for each of the three units here.

Primary Unit - Grades Pre-pre K through Three

1. It is recommended that no ability grouping be practiced in the primary unit. Pupils should be grouped in fairly random fashion, with special consideration being given, when necessary, to placing individual pupils with teachers who are best able to work with them.

Such a policy must not preclude the establishment of special classes for the severely emotionally disturbed, the Educable Mentally Retarded and the Trainable as well as for those with sight or hearing deficiencies or other physical disabilities which make it necessary for them to have special care or special instruction. Admission to such special programs should be based on city-wide criteria, established by specialists in the various areas of disability. While pupils must be screened by teachers or helping personnel in each school, no pupil should be admitted to a Special Education program without a thorough diagnosis by expert practitioners. The age at which children should be admitted to the various Special Education programs might vary from one program to another.

Although sectioning by ability is definitely not recommended, it is suggested that in the three upper grades teachers make maximum use of flexible within-class grouping. Such practice is common for teaching reading, but rarely extends to other subjects. It is suggested that such flexible grouping be used consistently so that much of the instruction would be in small groups, increasing the possibility for individual attention to each pupil, and insuring that each pupil is actively engaged in learning, rather than "tuned out" as so often happens when the whole class is taught.

2. It is recommended that a pilot ungraded program be instituted in six schools to encompass grades 1, 2 and 3. Such a program would enable pupils to be taught at various levels, regardless of age or grade placement. Some pupils might be able to complete the ungraded unit in two years, although others might need four years. The major effort of this enterprise would be to insure that all pupils be helped to learn the basic skills. The more advanced can move to higher level material as they become ready for it. To undertake such a program would require curriculum and materials development at the heart of the organizational change. A special summer session should be provided for selected 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade teachers for instruction in individualized teaching and help with planning and organizing the materials needed for a completely individualized program. After the summer session, the teachers could actually institute such a program in their classrooms which they will have "prepared" for individual learning. The summer program would require the services of specialists in

individualized teaching, in technological aides and in resources.

3. It is strongly urged that a continuous assessment program be established to determine which individual children need help and which should be encouraged to move more or less rapidly than is normal.

Early Intermediate Unit - Grades 4 - 6

1. It is recommended that no ability grouping by class be practiced in grades 4 - 6, but that no class be established in which the reading range exceeds 2.5 - 3 years. This will result in considerable overlap in reading ability from class to class, as well as a considerable range within each class. Therefore, extensive use should be made of sub-grouping within the classroom. Wherever possible, specialized teachers should be available for mathematics and science as well as for art, gym, and music.

2. Skills Centers should be established to which individual pupils or small groups can go for help in the areas in which they are weak. If adequately staffed and equipped (making maximum use of auto-instructional materials) such a center could accommodate as many as 20 pupils at one time for any one area. If there is a sufficiently large room, several skills might be taught in the one center; otherwise, separate places should be equipped for each of the basic skills, especially for reading, language and math.

3. Either in the Skill Centers or in connection with the school library, centers should also be provided for the more able pupils to engage in independent activities, pursue special interests or move ahead in some basic subject. Such activities should be supervised by the staff of these centers as well as checked by the classroom teacher.

4. Just as for the Primary Unit, it is recommended that a summer program to prepare selected teachers to develop completely individualized classroom procedures be initiated. Preferably, the teachers should be selected from these intermediate schools which are fed by the pilot primary units in whcih teachers will be similarly trained. A regular assessment program should continue throughout the early intermediate grades.

Later Intermediate Unit - Grades 7 and 8

1. It is recommended that ability grouping by subject begin at grade 7 and continue through grade 8. At this level departmentalized teaching is generally instituted and pupils can be placed in different sections for different subjects. The criteria for placement should be developed on the basis of the population in the school rather than on the basis of external District or national norms.

By the time pupils reach the 7th grade, the school is confronted not only by a large spread in general ability to cope with academic material, but also with considerable differentiation of the various abilities which are required for performance in the several school subjects. Although there is growing evidence[1/] that such differentiation exists even in the primary grades, the extent of the differences increases with age and extended schooling. Developed values, interests, aspirations for the future as well as experienced success or failure all combine to strengthen an individual's performance in one area of the curriculum, weaken it in another. Although there are some students who appear to perform at consistently high, consistently mediocre,

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1/ Gerald S. Lesser, Frederick B. Davis, and Lucille Nahemow. The identification of gifted elementary school children with exceptional scientific talent. Educ. psychol. Measmt, 1962, 349-364.

or consistently low levels in all subjects, the achievement profiles of most students tend to deviate considerably from the straight line and show considerable variation from one subject to another.

Inspection of the Step Reading and Step Math of a random sample of 100 sixth grade pupils enrolled in regular track classes of the sample elementary schools found 29 students who scored at or above the upper quartile on National Norms in Reading and/or Math. Of these, 14 achieved top quarter status in both areas, but 7 pupils achieved this status in Math only, while 8 pupils achieved it in Reading but not in Math. Thus, differentiated performance in the two areas was already apparent in the sixth grade, though to a lesser degree than at the later grades.

2. In addition to regular grouping as suggested above, an "Honors" class should be established at each grade level for those students who rank in the top 10 or 15% of their grade across all subjects. The rationale for such a procedure is discussed under the recommendations for the High School. In view of the particular importance of such a selection procedure for the disadvantaged pupils who do not reach high standards by national norms, it is recommended that, in schools in which there is a sizable proportion of middle-class pupils, the membership in the "Honors" sections be expanded to include the top 10 or 15% of the disadvantaged population as well as those who would qualify on the basis of national norms. If the sixth grades are grouped relatively randomly within a two to three year reading range, then the top performing three or four students from each sixth grade in which the lowest reading level does not fall more than 2-1/2 years below grade level might be considered eligible for Honors classes.

3. The Skills Center program should be continued through the 7th and 8th grades. Extended auto-instructional materials, utilizing all available technological developments should be included. Individual students might well spend an entire period in the Center while the rest of their class is receiving instruction in the subject in which the student needs special help. The function of the center would be to provide such help as would enable a student to return to his regular class at the earliest opportunity.

4. At the end of Grade 8, a careful assessment should be made of each student for optimum guidance and placement in the various high school subjects. The assessment should include teacher grades; teacher comments regarding the pupils' special abilities or difficulties based on a rating procedure which teachers are trained to use; standardized tests in the major skill areas as well as any pertinent information from the pupil personnel or health offices or from agencies outside the school from which the student may have received special services. All of this information should be sent on to the high school to insure that an appropriate individual program be planned for each entering 9th grade student.

High School

Essentially, the recommendations for the high school level are similar to those recommended for the last two years of the Intermediate Unit. However, some additional areas are considered.

1. The need for flexible, subject-by-subject grouping, based on the norms of each school, is even greater at the high school level than at the upper intermediate. Inspection of the 9th grade Reading and Math scores of randomly selected regular track students from the eleven academic high schools found a total of 40 students who scored at or above the 75th percentile in one or another or both subjects. Of these, 20 achieved top quarter standing on both tests, but 12 achieved this status in Reading

only, and 8, in Math only. Thus, half of the students who scored in the top quarter did so in one subject only and thus might well have benefited from different placements in the two areas. Similar differences would probably be found if the tests had addressed themselves to the other subjects of the curriculum.

By the 11th grade, only 34 of the 106 students achieved top quarter standing. At this level, the proportion which scored high on both tests decreased (12 out of 34) as compared to 9th grade. More students were showing high level ability in one area but not in the other. In fact, one student in the top quartile in Reading and one in Math fell well below the median in the alternate subject.

To the extent that these random samples are representative of at least that portion of the high school population enrolled in regular track classes, one would expect increasing differentiation of performance through the high school years.

It is therefore recommended, that throughout grades 9 to 12, inclusive, several sections be established in each subject. These sections need carry no particular designations except a number. Student placement in these sections should be determined mainly on the basis of their past performance in each particular subject. Determination of the level of performance should be based on the norms of each particular school. Thus, for example, students whose 8th grade Math ratings would place them in the top quarter of students entering their high school would be placed in more rapidly moving 9th grade Math sections; those who fall between the 50th and 75th percentile for their high school might be placed in another set of sections, etc.

In addition to past perfommance, standardized or specially designed tests might also be used to determine a student's placement in a particular subject. These should not be general scholastic aptitude tests or Intelligence tests. Such tests as the Iowa or Educational Development Tests, which provide separate scores for each subject might be useful. But all scores should be examined against the school's norms, not national norms or even city-wide norms.

Such grouping will, however, be of little value unless it is accompanied by clear determination of the scope and pace of learning with which the students will be confronted. The most able students as well as the slowest in any one subject need to be exposed to content and pace which will be just enough beyond their present level of knowledge to be challenging, but not so far beyond to be frustrating. At each level, expectations should be higher than the demonstrated performance level of the pupils, but they should also be flexible; dropped when the pupil is floundering, raised when he shows success.

Such a plan would imply individual programming for each pupil, allowing for maximum flexibility in course selection as well as course level.

2. It is recommended that each high school set up its own criteria for membership in special "top" sections in any given subject. Whether designated as "Honors" or by some other name, these classes should represent a high degree of recognition for the most able students in the school. Under such a plan, the actual level of performance of the students enrolled in such sections would obviously differ greatly from school to school. But in view of the tremendous differences in background and early learning opportunities of the students who attend the various schools, quite different levels of attainment may still represent considerable promise for achieving a relatively high level of academic competence. Thus, students from severely impoverished environments who, at the 8th year level, score at or somewhat above the national median, may, under specially challenging and motivating circumstances and with help in mastering some of

the basic skills in which they are deficient, achieve at a far higher level by the end of high school. That only a few of them will reach the same level as the top 15 or 20% of an affluent, highly motivated population, in no way diminishes the importance of insuring that the most capable of the poverty youngsters be given every chance to achieve the highest academic status of which they are capable.

The results of several studies support such a procedure. The Demonstration Guidance Project initiated in a Harlem junior high school[1] identified as "talented" all 9th grade students who scored at or above an IQ of 90, and were less than two years retarded in reading and arithmetic. After a year of special attention at the junior high level and three years at the senior high level, a considerably greater proportion of students than in past years graduated from high school with academic diplomas and went on to post-high school educational institutions, including four year colleges. Follow-up data indicated that only about 1/5 of those who entered four year colleges dropped out -- a far smaller proportion than would be found in a normal population.

Additional evidence on the success of a "top" group of disadvantaged students who score low on scholastic aptitude tests was reported by the Southern Project Study.[2] It provides follow-up data on the performance in non-segregated Northeastern and Western colleges of Southern Negro students who fell below the national median on tests of scholastic aptitude but graduated in the top 10% of their class. Well over 90% maintained average grades of C or better, 63% averaged above C, and 12% maintained averages of B-plus or better. The study found that while those from lower socio-economic status homes scored lower on the scholastic aptitude measures, they generally did better in college than the more affluent students. When the quality of the various colleges which had admitted these students was controlled, 70% of the lower socio-economic group as opposed to only 48% of the higher SES students maintained averages of C or better. Thus, for the low SES students, graduation in the top 10% of their high school class was a better predictor of college success than scholastic aptitude scores, since, on the basis of the latter, few, if any, of these students would have been admitted to the colleges to which they actually went.

A third effort along similar lines has been underway in Israel for the last half-dozen years.[3] As part of a concerted effort to locate the most able students from the disadvantaged population at all levels, one project involved the careful selection of the top troup of 8th grade graduates who failed to reach the cut-off point on the National Scholastic Survey Test set for the population as a whole for free admission to high school. These youngsters were placed in some of the top academic high schools in Jerusalem but lived in a residential center in which they were given intensive help. Of the initial group of selectees, 85% stayed to graduate from high school. Of these, 87% passed all the national matriculation examinations. In the control group of similar ability and socio-cultural background, only 70% registered in college-bound programs and, of these, only 62% reached 12th grade and less than 2/3 of the seniors matriculated successfully. Programs at the elementary and secondary levels, both residential and non-residential, are continuing to seek and nurture the most able students from the disadvantaged population.

1/ Board of Education of the City of New York. The Demonstration Guidance Project, 1957-1962. Pilot program for Higher Horizons.

2/ Kenneth B. Clark, The most valuable hidden resource. Coll. Bd. Rev., 1956, 29, 23-26.

3/ M. Smilansky and S. Smilansky. Bases for intellectual advancement of culturally disadvantaged children. (Mimeo) July, 1965.

The consensus from existing studies is that early and continuous selection and special nurturance of the most able pupils in a disadvantaged population is most apt to result in success. However, even at the senior high school level, the future careers of many such youngsters can be greatly affected by special programs which are strongly motivating by their very selectivity and which provide the needed academic help.

The more effective the primary and early intermediate programs become for raising the level of academic performance of disadvantaged youngsters, the more nearly will the top groups in the secondary schools of disadvantaged areas resemble students from more affluent backgrounds. However, even now, selecting the "top" performing group at the beginning of grade 7 and giving them extra help and encouragement should produce a group of high school graduates able to go on to four year colleges and to cope successfully with high academic standards.

3. Although considerable differentiation of abilities has taken place by the 9th grade, most young people have not yet reached the "maturity" to make valid choices regarding future careers on the basis of their perceived strengths and weaknesses at age 14. In fact, there is considerable danger in allowing a 9th grader to select a future course of study which will effectively bar him from all but a vew vocational avenues. The evidence from longitudinal studies of vocational choice raises serious questions about the readiness of 8th and 9th grade youngsters to determine the course of their future lives.[1/] The premature determination of a course of study is most serious when it limits the individual's options in the future. Thus, the election of a course of academic studies would enable the individual to prepare for college or go on to commercial, technical, or trade training. But the election of a vocational or commercial course would limit his options to the single area in which his studies fall.

It is therefore recommended that, through grade 10, curriculum variations be limited to the level and pace of academic work rather than allow for enrollment in vocational programs. The emphasis during those two years should be placed on acquainting the pupils with all possible options and helping them to see the relevance of their school work to various occupations in which they could engage. In most instances, Business and Industry are looking for prospective employees who have mastered the basic literacy skills and who are trainable, rather than for those who have a specific vocational skill, one which may well become outdated by the time the young person is ready for employment.

By grade 11, various options might be made available: a) continued academic preparation in the regular high school, b) part-time academic work in the regular high school, part-time vocational training in vocational centers, organized as a city-wide facility, available to students from all high schools, c) cooperative work-study plans or other forms of apprentice or internship training.

Thus, grouping in the last two years of high school could be determined not only by a student's level of performance in a particular subject but also by the kinds of pre-vocational programs in which students engage. But great care should be taken not to bar a student from membership in an advanced section in a particular subject in which he displays high ability because he is engaged in some form of pre-vocational work.

1/ Donald E. Super and Phoebe L. Overstreet. Vocational maturity of ninth grade boys. Teachers College Press, New York, 1960.

4. The continuing operation of skills centers at the high school level is strongly recommended. Very careful planning of procedures and especially of materials is crucial if such centers are to reach and hold the high school student. It is hoped, of course, that the effective operation of such skills centers at the earlier levels will decrease the number of students who will need such services in the high school. However, given the difficulties and deficiencies which so many disadvantaged students must overcome, many will continue to need help in improving their basic academic skills. The work in the skills centers should be carefully tailored not only to the specific help a student needs but also to his interests and concerns. A number of experiences have shown that at the higher levels, students with previous reading difficulties learn to read when the material is of particular interest to them or is perceived by them as having a direct relationship to what they want to know or learn to do. The skills centers should, therefore, represent completely individualized instruction, where the techniques and materials are determined for each student.

5. It is recommended that a pilot non-graded program be developed at the senior high school as well. Several school systems have planned and implemented non-graded secondary schools -- 3, 4 and 6 year programs. Curriculum content, scope and sequence have been developed and tested. Essential services to insure continuing diagnosis, assessment and individualization have been provided. The District should develop a pilot non-graded secondary school, providing time for the staff for planning, teacher training, and materials production.

Concluding Comments

The above grouping recommendations are aimed at bringing about a closer match between a pupil's level of ability to perform specific academic tasks and the instruction which he receives. But, any form of grouping is at best an approximation of such a match. Ideally, each child should be able to be faced with instruction appropriate to his needs, receive the teaching and guidance which he requires. Although by no means perfected, the experience and the technology already exist which could eventually convert the ideal into a reality. But for the present, while teachers are being prepared, equipment acquired and materials developed for truly individualized instruction (which does not preclude small or large group work when indicated), some procedures for narrowing the vast range of abilities and performance levels have to be used, especially beyond the primary grades. The above recommendations address themselves to the demands of the present; many of them may become completely irrelevant as the schools move toward individualized instruction.

Chapter 10

Congress, the D.C. Government and School Finance[a/]

The question of financing the District of Columbia Public Schools has been one of considerable controversy. It is frequently alleged that the schools are starved financially, that inadequate revenues mean unsatisfactory educational programs and poor student achievement; that unsympathetic treatment of school budget requests by the District Commissioners and by Congressional committees dramatizes the need for fiscal independence; and that "red tape" frustrates efficient financial administration. Whatever the validity of these charges, their persistance is remarkable. Virtually the same fiscal problems have been cited in every major survey of the Washington schools for the past century.

The President's Advisory Committee on Education observed in its report in 1938:

> Budgetary procedure in the District of Columbia is needlessly complicated and expensive. Although it is necessary for the public to check officials in charge of the expenditure of public funds, there are now better methods than excessive detailing of almost innumerable small items. The procedure now employed in the District of Columbia usually results in materially reducing the original estimates, perhaps too drastically to provide an adequate system of public schools. The suggestion may also be made that it would appear quite unnecessary for the subcommittees of the House and Senate committees on appropriations to deal with anything in the school estimates other than the principal categories and the large items.[1/]

Further, in discussing the appropriations procedures as one of the major problems faced by the schools, the committee observed:

> By making appropriations for detailed items and by insisting that the expenditures within the items conform closely to the budget estimates, the Congressional committees constantly determine educational policy, frequently in considerable detail. This procedure of appropriating funds by detailed items may prevent the adjustment of the educational system to needs and changing circumstances, and it is likely to result in a waste of money since it may not always be economical to make the expenditures exactly according to the items appropriated. That Congress should control educational policy in such detail when the schools are intended primarily to serve the residents of the District rather than a distinctly national purpose, and when seven-eighths of the financial support of the schools is derived from local taxes, cannot be regarded as in keeping with the democratic American way of providing school facilities. It would be better for Congress to make the appropriations for schools in lump sums, excepting perhaps the larger capital outlays, and allow the Board of Edu-

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a/ Dr. James A. Kelly and Dr. David A. Goslin prepared the reports from which this material is drawn.

1/ The Advisory Committee on Education, Public Education in the District of Columbia. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1938. p. 91.

> cation to expend the funds in such a way as to provide a program of public education that will meet the needs of the people who reside in the District, subject, of course, to proper checks and reviews by Congress. In any case, the appropriations should not be made under more than a few broad categories. 2/

With respect to Congress, the District government and other governmental agencies, the school system's relationships can be categorized under three headings -- areas of autonomy, of dependence and of cooperation. The District schools are autonomous in their day-to-day operations; in most activities except where contemplated changes require fund authorization (e.g., new positions); in curriculum determination, including course requirements and materials selection; in hiring personnel (as distinct from classification of positions within the civil service heirarchy). To the extent that any proposals do not require reallocation of funds, increases in budget, the establishment of new positions or construction of facilities, the school system could initiate and effect changes without interference from either Congress or the District government.

The school system is formally dependent or under the control of other governmental agencies in three areas: budget, including increases in funds for operation, or reallocation of existing funds; school construction and maintenance; and job classification and Civil Service regulation. Although requests for new construction and for maintenance are initiated by the school system, the actual construction and all maintenance are carried out by the District government. The school system is autonomous in hiring individuals for positions within the system but the District Personnel Office exerts some control through the mechanism of job classification, specification of qualifications and setting salary levels. Any major reorganization or reform of the school system in these areas is dependent on the District government and Congress.

The school must maintain cooperative relationships with other governmental agencies in the areas of recreation, health services, police protection and planning. In these areas, the system exerts little or no direct control over the other agencies involved.

The basic and overriding fact about the relationships between the District government and its school system is that officials of the District of Columbia perceive the school system simply as another department of city government, albeit one with more autonomy than some. The legal structure of the Washington government makes it possible for the city to enforce its view. On one hand, school officials feel that the District government should not be setting educational policy, but should respond sympathetically to the needs of the school system as specified by professional educators. District officials, on the other hand, take the view that education is but one of many functions to be performed by the District government and that school operations must be weighed against equally worthwhile demands on limited resources. District officials maintain that they must treat the school system as they would any other city department and defend their judging the relative worth of programs since unlimited funds are not available and school activities must be coordinated with other activities and responsibilities.

Financing The Schools

School revenues are obtained from two principal sources: taxes levied by the District government and the Federal government's annual payment or "contribution" to the District. In addition, the Board of Education receives certain federal grants and

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2/ Ibid., p. 92.

participates with the District government in borrowing funds for construction from the Federal Treasury. Finally, the schools receive small amounts from private and philanthropic sources.

The school lacks independent taxing authority. Consequently, the school system must compete for funds with every other city agency. It is the legal and administrative responsibility of the Board of Commissioners and its District Budget Office to allocate projected revenues among all of the departments of city government -- schools, health, welfare, police, fire, etc. Because the District of Columbia is itself under the direct control of Congress, it can spend only what that body authorizes it to spend. Each year, the District government must submit a budget request to Congress, specifying and justifying on a line-item basis, all increases in expenditures over the preceding year. A justification or detailed specification of requests for funds for items authorized in prior years is not required. Further, the total budget request to Congress may not exceed total revenue available; i.e., the city may not run at a loss. Thus the school system is in the position of competing with all city departments for a share of a pie, the size of which is limited.

Because line-item justification is necessary for new appropriations, the school system cannot ask for a lump sum to be used as it sees fit. All expenditures are specified in the Congressional budget appropriation and funds must be used for these purposes, unless special permission is obtained from Congress itself. More important, since the school system asks for more money than it ultimately receives, budget cutting, both in Congress and at the District level, involves the elimination not only of dollars but of the specific programs to which these dollars were attached. The selection of one educational program rather than another means setting educational policy. It is on this point that the school administration objects to the power wielded by the District Budget Office and the Commissioners. It is at this step in the budget process that cooperation between the school system and the District Budget Office becomes particularly critical.

Under present arrangements, the school budget is reviewed along with the budgets of all other District agencies, requests balanced against "available" revenues and, to achieve a balanced budget, the Commissioners either reduce requests or increase taxes. But even the Commissioners do not reduce the budget enough to suit Congress and it is common for Congress to reduce the school budget still further through Congressional authorization and appropriation procedures. Through these fiscal powers of the Commissioners and Congress, much school policy is determined.

It is not possible to stipulate which District revenues are used for schools and which are used for other purposes. Rather, most District revenues are placed into a General Fund from which allocations are made to the various District agencies, including the schools. Presumably the schools share proportionally in all District revenues and consequently, the entire revenue structure for the District is relevant to an inquiry about school revenues.

Taxes. The Board of Education cannot levy taxes: this authority is vested in the three Commissioners of the District and in Congress. The Commissioners play a particularly strategic role in determining how much money the schools will get and in establishing regulations shaping how the body will be spent. The District has the power to levy real estate and personal property taxes without obtaining Congressional approval. All other taxes must be authorized by legislative act of the Congress.

The District presently obtains its revenues from a surprisingly large number of taxes including a property tax on real and tangible and personal property; sales and gross receipt taxes on alcohol, tobacco, general merchandise and motor vehicles; in-

come taxes on individual and corporate incomes; inheritance taxes; motor vehicle registration taxes; and charges for a variety of governmental services. This is a somewhat more diverse package than in most cities. The real property tax provides the largest single source of revenue to the District ($83 millions estimated for FY1967). Sales and income taxes are next in importance, providing, respectively an estimated $45.3 millions and $48.2 millions in FY1967. The Federal Contribution for FY1966 was $44.25 millions. Of all these varied taxes, only the property tax rates can be set by the District Commissioners; changes in rates for all other taxes require specific approval from Congress. The analysis which follows is focused on the property tax because it is the principal local source of revenue in Washington and because it is the only major source of revenue over which the District government has any direct control.

The Property Tax. Determining a property tax rate is only partially an economic question; basically, it requires subjective political judgments about what governmental services are required and the extent to which the cost of those services ought to be carried by the property tax. The District Commissioners appear to be quite sensitive to excessive property taxation on grounds that a high property tax in the District will drive commerce and industry to surrounding suburbs, thus depressing the District's economy and decreasing the yield of a given tax rate.

Data comparing equalized property tax rates for the District and surrounding tax jurisdictions are presented in Table 10-1. The data show that for every year since FY1963, the property tax rate in the District of Columbia has been lower than the average rate of surrounding tax jurisdictions. Further, between FY1962 and FY1967, the average of property taxes outside the District rose 16.2 percent while the District's rate remained virtually unchanged, rising a mere 1.5 percent.

Table 10-1

Comparison of Property Tax Rates, [a/] District of Columbia
and Washington Metropolitan Area
1962 - 1967

Place	FY1962	FY1963	FY1964	FY1965	FY1966	FY1967
District of Columbia	$1.375	1.375	1.18	1.18	1.27	1.39
Montgomery County	1.53	1.52	1.61	1.55	1.60	1.76
Prince George County	1.40	1.38	1.39	1.43	1.50	1.68
Arlington County	1.30	1.30	1.18	1.18	1.18	1.31
Alexandria	1.07	1.42	1.11	1.11	1.29	1.34
Fairfax County	1.20	1.34	1.27	1.27	1.37	1.44
Falls Church	1.31	1.46	1.39	1.39	1.39	1.53
Fairfax City	(b)	1.38	1.34	1.34	1.61	1.53
Average for places other than District	1.30	1.40	1.33	1.32	1.42	1.51

a/ Rates shown are "effective" tax rates per $100 of current market value of property.

b/ Data unavailable

Source: District of Columbia Department of General Administration

The size of the tax base itself and the proportion exposed through assessment are important variables in determining whether a given tax rate is burdensome. Washington is fortunate in having an expanding property tax base. In 1930, the full market value of taxable property in the District was $3,009 per capita. By 1960, this figure had risen to $7,883, an increase of 162 percent. It is estimated that by 1967 it had risen further to $8,074 per capita. For 14 other large cities, the average increase between 1930 and 1960 was 97 percent, so that Washington fared considerably better than average. This increase is not unexpected in light of the dramatic growth in federal activity during the three decades and the small decline in population during the last decade of that period.

However, the proportion of this expanding tax base which has been exposed to taxation has steadily declined because of a falling assessment ratio. Table 10-2 indicates that the District's assessment ratio in 1962 was only slightly more than half of the 1930 ratio, a decline common among many of America's great cities.

Table 10-2

Ratios of Assessed Values to Full Market Values for All Taxable Property in Selected Cities, 1930, 1960 and 1962

City	Assessment Ratios 1930	1960	1962
WASHINGTON, D. C.	90%	55%	47.2%
Baltimore	90	64	55.5
Boston	90	66	34.6
Buffalo	80	60	N.A.
Chicago	37	55	35.5
Cleveland	80	45	35.4
Detroit	90	50	42.9
Houston	50	33	N.A.
Los Angeles	50	23	20.4
Milwaukee	73	53	48.4
New York	90	82	47.6
Philadelphia	90	68	57.7
Pittsburgh	66	55	35.8
St. Louis	65	30	35.6
San Francisco	38	25	11.8

Source: H. T. James, J. A. Kelly, and W. I. Garms, Determinants of Educational Expenditures in Large Cities of the United States. Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University, 1966. p. 15.

Despite a declining assessment ratio, the assessed valuation of Washington's real property has tripled since 1930, from $1,182 million in that year to $3,028 million in 1966. The assessed value of non-taxable property in 1966 was $2,517 million, illustrating how heavily the District is impacted with Federal property.

It must be concluded from these data that Washington enjoys a relatively strong real property tax base and has in recent years tended to shield its property from taxation through declining assessment ratios and chosen not to tax it at the average level of surrounding communities.[1/]

1/ It can be argued that the District partially offsets its lower than average property tax rate by taxing a wider array of other tax sources and the surrounding communities; objective analysis of differing tax structures is difficult, but available data suggest that the total tax burden on District citizens is comparable to other large cities and, indeed, less than in many.

It is important to note that between 1930 and 1960, while assessment ratios in Washington were allowed to decline, expenditures per pupil in the United States rose from $87 per pupil in 1930 to $375 in 1960, or in percentage terms, an increase of more than 300 percent. Even Washington's expanding tax base per capita did not come close to matching the increase in the costs of education.

The Federal Contribution. -- The Federal government has traditionally contributed a sum each year to aid in the operation of the city government. The absolute amount of this contribution has varied considerably as have ideas as to what the proportionate contribution of the Federal government to the running of the District should be. Prior to 1923, the Federal contribution was set at 50 percent of the District budget. Presently, although substantially higher in terms of total dollars,the Federal contribution is about 15 percent of the total District budget. (See Table 10-3. For FY1967 Congress authorized approximately $60 million of which only $50 million actually was appropriated. (See Table 10-3.)

The payment can be justified on two grounds: (1) there is a national interest in the Federal city and local citizens should not have to bear the cost of all local governmental expenses and (2) a substantial proportion of the District's real and tangible property is Federally owned and thus exempt from District taxation.

Table 10-3

Percentage of Federal Payment to the General Fund, 1947 - 68

Fiscal Year	Appropriations	District of Columbia share	United States share	Percentage of United States share
1947	$72,584,314	$64,584,314	$8,000,000	11.02
1948	81,744,086	70,744,086	11,000,000	13.46
1949	86,017,985	75,017,985	11,000,000	12.79
1950	98,331,275	87,331,275	11,000,000	11.19
1951	103,924,822	94,124,822	9,800,000	9.43
1952	121,265,978	110,865,978	10,400,000	8.58
1953	113,589,327	103,589,327	10,000,000	8.80
1954	129,111,304	118,111,304	11,000,000	8.52
1955	139,578,760	119,578,760	20,000,000	14.33
1956	143,179,303	125,179,303	18,000,000	12.57
1957	155,579,025	135,579,025	20,000,000	12.86
1958	166,096,999	146,096,999	20,000,000	12.04
1959	185,915,914	160,915,914	25,000,000	13.45
1960	199,806,074	174,806,074	25,000,000	12.51
1961	223,086,004	198,086,004	25,000,000	11.20
1962	233,626,683	203,626,683	30,000,000	12.84
1963	255,356,208	225,356,208	30,000,000	11.75
1964	265,099,691	227,599,691	37,500,000	14.15
1965	298,147,563	260,647,563	37,500,000	12.57
1966	326,017,382	281,767,382	44,250,000	13.57
1967	367,427,566 a/	307,427,566	60,000,000 a/	16.33
1968	466,013,373 b/	395,413,373	70,600,000 b/	15.15

a/ Includes estimated supplementals of $15,492 thousand for pay increase and program items and $10.0 million in Federal payment.

b/ Includes estimated later transmittals of $1,147 thousand for proposed D. C. Police pay increase and $10.6 million in Federal payment under proposed plan to base this payment on the percentage (25%) of general fund revenues.

The Federal contribution has long been a source of controversy. The Federal government does not like to feel that it is being taxed by a municipality and, as a consequence, has resisted attempts to establish the size of its contribution by a formula based on taxing Federal property in Washington. Congressmen defend this position by arguing that such an arrangement would make it possible to authorize a contribution in excess of such a formula amount, and thus could potentially be detrimental to the District and its schools. In practice, Congress has never authorized a contribution larger than or even equal to the amount that the District would receive on a formula basis.

In early 1967, two proposals were under consideration for fixing the federal payment on a formula basis rather than relying completely on the occasional beneficence of Congressional appropriating committees. One is supported by the District Commissioners and calls for a federal payment equal to 25 percent of the District's General Fund Budget while the other would set the federal payment at the amount that would be collected if federal property and activity were taxable. Under the Commissioners' Plan, the payment in FY1966 would have been about $80 million, almost double its actual level that year. Under a second plan, which was introduced in Congress in 1966 as HR6889, the federal payment for FY1967 would have been $61.9 million instead of its actual level of approximately $50 million.

Either of these two plans are superior to the present arrangement. The Board of Education and the Commissioners, now required to plan their finances on five-year projections, need some way to project Federal as well as District revenues. Not only is the present arrangement unpredictable, subject as it is to the whim of Congress each year, but the amount is inadequate and inequitable. Few big city school systems receive as little as 16 percent of their revenues from their state governments and most are at least twice that proportion. Twenty-five percent should be regarded by responsible Congressmen as a <u>minimum</u> level at which to set the federal payment. As District and school expenditures rise within the years ahead and particularly as the schools take serious steps toward meeting the extraordinary educational needs of District children, the federal payments will have to join the District's property tax in providing major shares of the needed revenue.

<u>Loan Authorization for Construction</u>. Under Section 9-220 of the District Code, a loan fund is authorized to assist in construction and capital needs of the District. It is not a revolving fund. When once used, new Congressional authorization is required for further loans.

The District is authorized under P.L. 85-451 to borrow up to $175 million from the Treasury for construction purposes. School facilities as well as other types of governmental facilities are included in this authorization. As of June 1966, the outstanding balance on the authorization was about $40 million, on which debt service of $2,428,247 is due during FY1968. Treasury loans must be repaid over a 30 year period with an interest rate set semi-annually by the Secretary of the Treasury. The rate applicable to the period July 1 - December 31, 1966 was 4-3/4 percent. The interest rate charged the District government by the Treasury on loan funds is higher than those paid by some other city school districts.

Despite the unused portion of this loan authorization, about two-thirds of capital outlays are funded from current revenues. But it is unrealistic to expect current revenues to bear two-thirds of the cost of capital outlays in Washington, and no other city follows such an extreme "pay as you go" policy. The needs for rebuilding old schools and adding new ones are critical. One of the major constraints on developing new school programs is that there is no place to put them once they are developed; similarly, reducing pupil-teacher ratios to the Board's present ratios is requiring

substantial space. The schools have been substantially "behind" in their construction program since 1950. At present, 36 percent of the school buildings are more than 50 years old. Some of the proposals advanced in this survey will require major additions to the present facilities.

All school construction and maintenance of school facilities are carried out by the District government. Decisions as to the need for new school facilities and site selections are the responsibility of the school system. Architectural work, site acquisition, construction and maintenance are responsibilities of the District government. Such a division obviously leads to problems. Of all the administrative units, the Department of Buildings and Grounds is possibly the most inadequately staffed. Since responsibility for initiating requests for new school construction rests there, the staff shortages and the consequent inadequacy in short-range and long-term planning for new facilities contribute to the fact that the capital budget has usually been the most severely cut.

Responsibility for design of new facilities rests with the District government; the schools do not maintain their own architectural staff. There has been a tendency toward rigidity in the design of new schools. Although the District government employs some architects who are specialists in educational facilities, the school system should be in a position to exert greater control and initiative in specifying new kinds of construction.

Allocation of maintenance responsibilities results in two kinds of problems. On the one hand, funds allocated for school system maintenance are totally inadequate. Secondly, there is considerable inefficiency in getting repairs done. More important, however, is the lack of provision for getting minor repairs done quickly. There are no discretionary maintenance funds either at the school district central office or at the local building level.

Federal Aid Programs. -- The District of Columbia is eligible for a variety of Federal aid programs, such as the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), Vocational Education Act, Impact Aid (P.L. 874 and 815), and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA). The availability of such supplementary funds under a variety of special programs results in District officials and Congress considering them as a substitute for basic operating funds. The schools and other agencies anticipating special program funds must include them in their annual budget requests. It has been a constant struggle to get District officials and the Congress to view such funds as supplementary to the budget rather than as alternatives to basic support.

As a matter of principle and efficient administration, the District's schools should utilize all such grants to the fullest possible extent and where local matching funds are required to "earn" federal grants as in the case of NDEA, these matching funds should be the first to be budgeted and the last to be cut. The schools have received all impact aid and ESEA funds to which they are entitled and virtually all vocational education aid has also been utilized. This is not the case, however, with the NDEA programs. Table 10-4 shows that between FY1959 and FY1965 the District schools were eligible for $1,331,347 under three of the major NDEA programs but that the schools utilized or received only $942,008. Thus, the schools passed up the chance to use $389,339 in desperately needed aid during a recent six-year period, aid specifically directed to some of the District schools' most serious weaknesses in areas such as curriculum development, science equipment and supplies, etc. The schools also failed to utilize funds from Title X, NDEA, until FY1967. These funds would have helped provide improved data processing services.

Table 10-4

Federal Allotments and Funds Used, Three NDEA Programs, 1958-65

	FEDERAL ALLOTMENT			FEDERAL FUNDS USED		
	Title III Program A	Title III Program C	Title V-A	Title III Program A	Title III-C	Title V-A
1958-1959	$113,317	$20,000	$25,234	$23,492	$7,395	$14,403
1959-1960	125,839	20,000	53,071	73,934	17,003	40,754
1960-1961	101,605	20,000	47,493	103,656	18,891	41,366
1961-1962	122,475	20,000	46,000	117,727	19,140	46,000
1962-1963	102,431	20,000	47,753	95,649	19,360	47,000
1963-1964	104,290	20,000	48,565	61,609	19,360	48,000
1964-1965	156,406	50,000	66,868	61,269	20,000	47,000
TOTAL	$826,363	$170,000	$334,984	$537,336	$121,149	$283,523

Total Allotments:	$1,331,347
Total Funds Used:	942,008
Unutilized Aid:	$ 383,339

Source: Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation, District Schools.

The Budgetary Process

Budget requests from city departments are coordinated by the District Budget Office into an overall city budget for the Commissioners' approval. The Commissioners, in turn, submit their budget to Congress via the Bureau of the Budget. In this process, the District Budget Office must consider all anticipated revenues. In the past, the practice has been to limit the total budget to expected revenues -- i.e., to present a balanced budget. Only recently has an unbalanced budget been submitted to Congress. An unbalanced budget puts pressure on Congress either to authorize increased monies through higher taxes and a larger Federal contribution, or to cut the budget. As a consequence, the District Commissioners and their Budget Office are pressed by Congress (particularly from the Appropriations Committees) to keep the budget in line with expected revenues.

The present school budget process is dominated by two considerations. First, at least until FY1968, the District Commissioners have consistently cut rather large sums of the Board of Education budget on grounds that taxes and the Federal payment could not be raised sufficiently to meet all demands from District agencies for funds. Second, Congress has insisted that it approve all items in the school (and District of Columbia) budget, consent to all tax increases (save in the property tax) and actually appropriate all monies for the District budget, including locally levied and collected property taxes. Each of these two considerations has acted, perhaps unintentionally, to exert a conservative influence on school budgets. Table 10-5 shows the reductions and requested increases in the school budget for each year since FY1953.

The operating budget increase requests--the dollar amounts over the prior year's authorization and appropriation-- are contained in Table 10-6 for the period 1953-66 During this period, the total requested increases amounted to $82,360,411. The Commissioners approved 78.3 percent of this amount ($64,482,734). Congress actually appropriated only 66.4 percent ($54,709,280).

Close contact is maintained between the Budget Office and the school system budget personnel. The District Budget Office has established the concept of a "budget review" to help anticipate the size of departmental requests. Recently, attempts have been made to develop five-year budget projections. It is interesting to note that in this process, there apparently is more communication on long-range planning between the schools' administrative officials and the Budget Office than there is between school administrators and the Board of Education, the body which has the legal responsibility for actually submitting the budget.

Although some officials have maintained that the District government does not have the prerogative to nullify schools' budget requests (the District government should act purely as a transmitting agency), the District Budget Office and the Commissioners appear to have the power to modify school budget requests before their submission to Congress. Cuts by the District Budget Office and the Commissioners averaged 20% of requested increases in the operating budget between 1962 and 1967. On the other hand, the capital outlay budget has been even more severely cut each year by both the District and Congress.

In cutting the school's budget, the District Budget Office and Commissioners are setting educational policy by deciding which programs to fund. The Budget Office has responded to this criticism by asking the school officials to set priorities. Until recently, the schools have countered with "everything is important." This year, at the request of the Board of Education, the administration did attach priorities to various budget items.

In some ways, budget cutting by the District Budget Office, the District Commis-

Table 10-5

Comparison of School Requests, Commissioners' Action and Congressional Appropriations, 1961-1966

Fiscal Year	School Request	Commissioner's Action		Congressional Appropriation	
1961					
Operating Expenses	$53,888,224	$51,790,214	(96%)	$51,730,770	(96%)
Capital Outlay	14,387,497	7,194,000	(50%)	6,944,000	(48%)
Total	68,285,721	58,984,214	(86%)	58,674,700	(85%)
1962					
Operating Expenses	56,323,962	54,755,900	(97%)	54,206,110	(97%)
Capital Outlay	12,247,616	9,229,000	(75%)	8,886,000	(72+%)
Total	68,571,578	63,984,900	(93%)	63,092,110	(92%)
1963					
Operating Expenses	63,170,635	60,145,100	(95%)	59,504,750	(94%)
Capital Outlay	16,471,110	7,951,000	(50%)	7,693,000	(46%)
Total	79,671,745	68,096,100	(86%)	67,197,750	(84%)
1964					
Operating Expenses	68,596,450	65,271,200	(95%)	63,860,593	(93%)
Capital Outlay	26,811,600	18,452,000	(70%)	15,626,000	(58%)
Total	95,408,050	83,723,200	(88%)	79,486,593	(83%)
1965					
Operating Expenses	74,931,129	72,594,300	(97%)	72,038,800	(96%)
Capital Outlay	33,569,940	25,026,000	(73%)	14,405,100	(43%)
Total	108,291,069	97,620,300	(90%)	86,443,400	(79%)
1966					
Operating Expenses	81,411,458	78,167,900	(96%)	75,641,500	(92%)
Capital Outlay	43,869,700	29,488,500	(67%)	17,568,950	(43%)
Total	125,281,158	107,656,400	(86%)	93,210,450	(74%)

Table 10-6

Budget Increases Requested by the Board of Education, Approved by the D.C. Commissioners, and Appropriated by Congress for Operating Expenses, FY1953 - 1967

Fiscal Year	Board of Education's Requested Increases	Approved by Commissioners		Appropriated by Congress	
		Funds	Percent of Board Request	Funds	Percent of Board Request
1953	$ 2,881,900	$ 2,537,900	88.1	$ 2,285,800	79.3
1954	2,316,700	2,316,700	100.0	2,163,700	93.4
1955	2,201,982	1,000,482	45.4	1,041,670	47.3
1956	5,297,030	3,896,030	73.6	3,835,030[a/]	72.4
1957	2,437,961	95.0590	39.0	1,384,216[a/]	56.8
1958	5,120,673	4,213,374	82.3	3,933,424[a/]	76,8
1959	8,003,220	6,929,028	86.6	4,641,028[a/]	58.0
1960	3,182,689	3,118,500	98.0	3,140,832	98.7
1961	6,820,353	4,800,323	70.4	4,546,200[a/]	66.7
1962	4,336,600	2,807,500	64.7	2,475,410	57.1
1963	7,314,430	5,989,260	81.9	5,298,640[a/]	72.4
1964	10,061,554	7,129,500	70.9	4,355,843[a/]	43.3
1965	9,371,491	8,837,367	94.3	8,177,707[a/]	87.3
1966	13,013,828	9,956,180	76.5	7,429,780[a/]	57.1
TOTAL OF REQUESTED INCREASES	82,360,411	Total Approved by Comm. 64,482,734	78.3	Total Appropriated by Cong. 54,709,280	66.4
Recapitulation					
Mean for years 1953-1957	3,027,115	2,140,340	70.7	2,142,083	70.8
Mean for years 1958-1962	5,492,707	4,373,745	79.6	3,747,379	68.2
Mean for years 1963-1966	9,940,326	7,978,077	80.3	6,315,493	63.5

a/ In these years, supplemental appropriations for salary increases for Teachers' Salary Act and Classified employees are included. Since in many cases these increases occurred after the submission of the budget, estimates were added to Board of Education requests and to amounts approved by the Commissioners to compensate for the additional funds.

SOURCE: Department of General Research, Budget, and Legislation, Washington, D. C. Schools

sioners or Congress, implies inadequate justification by the school system of those items. District budget officials feel that the school system has been especially weak in justifying capital outlay requests and that is the area in which the sharpest cuts have always occurred. In arguing for reduction of class size, for instance, school officials claim justification has been made time and time again. Budget officials argue that a strong case has not been presented. The existence of a competent staff for long-range planning and evaluation would make possible assembling such evidence as is needed for sounder justification. The inadequacy of long-range planning -- a situation which is just now beginning to be tackled -- is responsible for some of the difficulties in justifying capital outlay requests. It is clear that long-range budget projections documenting the need for substantial increases in expenditures for the schools, would increase chances of getting adequate funds in future years. In addition, sound planning could help the District and Congress make an overall commitment to education in Washington.

Authorization and Appropriation -- Two separate operations are involved in authorization and appropriation. The House and Senate Appropriations Committees have never voted the full amount of funds authorized by legislation for the D.C. schools. During the last several years, the gap between authorization and appropriation has been more than $10 million annually. (See Table 10-7.) Appropriations Committee members point out that this leaves a margin for unforeseen additional expenses that may arise during the year. In practice, such "unforeseen" expenses have never approached the amount not appropriated. The unfortunate circumstance is that when larger authorizations are requested by the District, the legislative committees point out that the appropriations committees have not used all the money made available to them; therefore, why should the size of the authorization be increased?

There is a phrase in the District Code that has led some observers to suggest that monies authorized by the legislative committees as the Federal contribution and not appropriated accumulate over the years. The critical phase in Section 47-2501, Sub-Section D, states that "payments authorized by this section shall be credited to the general fund of the District of Columbia." Nothing is said about funds authorized but not appropriated, leaving some persons to contend that such funds remain authorized and could be appropriated in subsequent years if Congress decided to do so. Since 1954, the total of funds authorized but not appropriated approaches $92 million. Thus, a case might be made that Congress has in its power to appropriate immediately almost an additional $100 million. However, it is highly unlikely that Congress could be persuaded to do so even if it were convinced of the legality. In any event, the cumulative discrepancy between authorization and appropriation is dramatic and pressure must be brought on the appropriations committees for larger proportions of the amount authorized.

While both the amounts requested by the Board of Education and the amounts approved by the Commissioners have increased sharply, the percentage of the Board's requests actually appropriated by Congress has declined slightly. The cumulative effect of these cuts is impressive. If all the Board of Education's requests had been fully funded between 1953 and 1966, (the $2,881,900 requested in 1953 would have been available for each fiscal year since them), a total of $144,856,146 in additional school operating expenditures would have been available. Certainly this sum would have helped erase many of the schools' expenditure shortages and reversed the relative decline (compared to the national average) in Washington's expenditures per pupil.

At some point in any budget process the hard question of revenues must be injected into the decisions. In Washington, this now occurs both in the District of Columbia government and in Congress. The Board of Education and its staff view their budget decisions as a statement of educational needs; little overt attention is paid to the availability of the revenues (although requests are usually designed to be "within

reason"). This situation is common to fiscally dependent school districts and is an appropriate way to bring educational needs to the attention of those who must balance demands for many governmental services against one another and against the availability of revenues.

But Washington's schools enjoy the dubious and almost unique distinction of multiple revenue-oriented screenings during each budget process. There is no principle of good budgeting practice that supports such a repetitive screening process. Obviously, someone must balance Washington's needs against its revenues. Section 104 of Title 31 of the statutes establishing the District government and schools states in full as follows:

> The Board of Education shall annually on the first day of October transmit to the Commissioners of the District of Columbia an estimate in detail of the amount of money required for the public schools for the ensuing year, and said Commissioners shall transmit the same in their annual estimate of appropriations for the District of Columbia, with such recommendations as they may deem proper.

Table 10-7

Summary of Differences between Authorization and Appropriation in Federal Contributions to the District of Columbia since 1956

Year	Authorization a/	Appropriation a/	Remainder a/
1956	$ 20	$ 18	$ 2
1957	23	20	3
1958	23	20	3
1959	32	25	7
1960	32	25	7
1961	32	25	7
1962	32	30	2
1963	50	30	20
1964	50	37.5	12.5
1965	50	37.5	12.5
1966	60	44.25	15.75
Total	$404	$312.25	$91.75

a/ Figures shown are in millions of dollars.

The provision may be interpreted as stating the school budget shall be transmitted by the Commissioners to the Bureau of the Budget without changes but with their own comments and recommendations attached. Presently, the Commissioners forward only their revised version of the school budget and the schools' original requests are not brought to the attention of Congress subsequently unless a Congressman specifically asks about a deleted item. School officials may not volunteer such information.

Doubt must be expressed about the appropriateness of detailed Congressional review of school budgets. Is it really sensible for the most important legislative body in the world to make detailed decisions, as it now does, about which elementary school boiler should be repaired and which replaced? That type of decision is now made in the Congressional District and Appropriations Committees. It is also questionable whether a Congress which supplies from federal funds only about 16 percent of the District's total operating funds--and incidentally, one in which the people of the District are not represented -- should control expenditures for the entire District budget, including the 84 percent raised through local taxes.

The 1938 Presidential Advisory Committee on Education found the triple screening of school budgets -- by the Board of Education, the Commissioners, and Congress -- cumbersome, repetitive, unnecessarily restrictive and inefficient. There is no rational justification for this procedure. The Advisory Committee suggested then that while the law requires that the Bureau of the Budget review the estimates of the Board of Education, such a law could be amended to eliminate such a review and that "perhaps it should be done." The procedure should be substantially shortened and simplified so that one agency, either the Board of Education or the District Commissioners, have authority to levy local taxes and act as the final authority on the school budget. Even under such an arrangement, Congress could still determine annually the size of the federal contribution but this need not require the minute examination of each school boiler.

Such change would make the District's budget process more analagous to that of a local school system which determines its own budget, basing its revenue estimates partially on an expected level of state aid. The state legislature, in approving grants-in-aid to a local school system, seldom reviews the local school budget. Nor indeed does Congress inspect local school budgets before granting substantial sums through the impact aid program. It is ironic and instructive, but not comforting, to note that Washington is the only local school system in the nation whcih was told by Congress how to spend its Impact Aid (P.L.874) funds; each of the other 4000-odd districts receiving similar aid may spend it as it pleases.

Programmed Budgeting. Finally, there is the question of the structure or format of the school budget itself. Like most local school districts, Washington uses a line-item budget which classifies its expenditures according to the item on which the expenditure is being made (e.g., teachers, books, maps, boilers). School accounts are similarly organized. This system of line-item budgeting was developed in the early years of this century in response to widely publicized scandals in local and state governments. Civil service, annual outside audits, internal pre-audits, competitive bidding requirements and many other features of today's governments were not in common usage then.

Public budgeting has obviously advanced considerably in the past half-century. The difficulty with the line-item system is that such budgets really provide little information about what is being spent on specific programs, sets of functions or activities designed to achieve the school's goals. Teaching reading is an example of a "program" and is closely related to the goals of the school. Teachers' salaries or maintenance or fixed charges are categories not directly related to a particular school goal.

Organizing a budget according to programs is called Programmed Budgeting. The Programmed Budget is one of the principal fiscal innovations of this century. First proposed by a Presidential Commission in 1912, the idea was slow to catch on. The Hoover Commission gave it renewed impetus in 1949 but Robert McNamara and the Defense Department were first to demonstrate its usefulness in government. By order of President Johnson in 1965, all executive agencies of the federal government are required to develop and implement a programmed budget. The President's 1967 District of Columbia Budget Message directed the District to implement a PPB (Planning, Programming and Budgeting) system. Both because it is a significant improvement over previous budgeting arrangements and because of the presidential directives, the Washington schools should step to the front of the nation's school system in this area.

Development of a PPB system is a complex task but it could be achieved within a few years were the Board to direct its administrative staff to give this assignment high priority. The complexity arises from two sources: (1) the programs must be structured along the organization's goals and these are not always as easily or as precisely defined as is necessary for this kind of operation; and (2) once the goals and program categories are identified, the technical process of reclassifying expenditure items into new categories requires considerable time.

Once operative, the Board should expect a PPB System to provide data on expenditures in at least four major classifications. The first two are subject-matter and grade-level programs. A typical specific category, "teaching reading in regular first-grade classrooms," for instance, would include expenditures for that part of the teacher's salary proportional to the amount of time devoted to instruction in reading, books, a portion of the operation and maintenance costs for that classroom in school, part of the fixed charges (insurance, etc.) for that building, a fraction of the building administrator's salary and that of his staff, plus other items. The total cost of particular programs then would be known. A third classification is school programs with detailed cost figures, by program and grade, available on a school-by-school basis. The fourth classification is one presently being used, budget by line-items.

Once cost data on goal-oriented programs are available, it is then possible to measure the relative costs of alternatives, each of which may be designed to achieve the same goal. For instance, if the Board were to stress remedial reading efforts, several kinds of remedial programs could be designed on a one or two year trial period. Comparative cost data could be used in the end-of-year evaluation of each of these programs. When such evaluations are conducted at all today they seldom include analysis of programs and their costs. The Board and administrative staff should work toward the day when such program evaluation can be designed before experimental or pilot programs are initiated so that the specific outcomes anticipated for programs can be measured.

Evaluations should utilize quantitative measures of the extent to which the particular goals have been met in specific programs. With quantitative measures of "achievement" coupled with cost data, a reasonably sophisticated cost-effectiveness analysis can be used as a regular feature of Board decision-making. A period of two to three years would be adequate for developing this kind of decision-making capacity were the Board to authorize staff personnel and data processing facilities needed for such planning. Foundation support or federal grants should be sought for early development efforts in the area of Programmed Budgeting.

Expenditures

School expenditures have received prominent attention in every survey of a big city school system. This is so because the level of school expenditures per pupil is taken

to be an indicator of the quality of education offered. While more precise and direct measures of school quality are continuously being developed, and while important qualifications such as regional differences in wages and prices must be allowed, expenditures per pupil remain one of the best, albeit approximate, indicators of the amount and quality of resources being allocated to education.

The District's level of expenditures is compared with the national levels in Table 10-8

Table 10-8

Total Operating Expenditures per Pupil in Average Daily Attendance in the Schools of Washington and the United States, 1955-1956 and 1965-1966[a/]

	1955--1956	1965--1966	Percent Increase 1956--1966
Washington	$340	$554	63 percent
United States	$294	$533	81 percent

a/ The most recent year for which comparative data were available.

Sources: Washington data from Washington, D. C. schools: United States data from Estimates of School Statistics, 1965-1966. National Education Association Research Division, Washington, p. 20. 1965-1966 data are estimates.

The table shows that while expenditures for education in Washington were about 15 percent above the national average in 1955-1956, that margin had shrunk to only 4 percent above the national average by 1965-1966. Further, while Washington's expenditures rose 63 percent during that decade, expenditures in the nation rose 81 percent. It is possible that increases in the budget for FY1967 and FY1968 will reverse this downward relative trend but budgets elsewhere are rising also.

Washington was slightly above the mean expenditure per pupil for a large city in 1959-1960. The mean average for 15 large city school districts that year was $410, only a little below Washington's level of $417.

An important factor in determining school costs is the pupil-teacher ratio. This ratio in Washington has declined (i.e., improved) in recent years from about 37:1 to about 30:1 on the average. These averages, of course, conceal a large number of distressingly oversized classes. As of October 1966, for example, 63.8 percent had 30 or more pupils in classrooms in Washington; these classrooms accounted for 69.3 percent of the total pupil enrollment at that level.

There are other indications of financial undernourishment ranging from the lack of adequate funds for office supplies; elementary teachers without maps, globes and other similar instructional equipment; and similar shortages. Impact Aid (P.L.874) and ESEA funds have contributed to alleviating some of the more acute shortages. However, there can be little doubt that the District's children and its schools have suffered because the level of resources provided has been far below minimal.

True, the level of support and resources allocated the schools are about average for the nation. While many school districts are spending less than Washington, presumably those which are spending considerably more are providing a richer educational program for their students. To a school district which should ambitiously be seeking to become an exemplary urban educational system, the conclusion is inescapable: additional resources must be committed to education so that Washington can compete for the finest available staff, the best educational materials and the most adequate facilities. This conclusion is underscored when one considers the fact that many school children in the District have unusually complex and severe educational problems which can be met only through special programs and services which cost a great deal of money -- as much as three or four times the cost of meeting the educational needs of the child whose home environment has already done a good portion of the job even before the child enters school. It is clear from the research evidence that a considerable increase in educational expenditures is needed to help children of the poor. This is not to propose any lessening of effort in educating children from middle and higher income families but rather to make meaningful a real program of compensatory education.

A basic characteristic of American schools and their decentralized pattern of operation through local school districts is that the quality of education in a given district is primarily determined by the economic ability of that system to support its schools and by the demand of the local citizens for educational services. Some have asserted that big city schools represent the exception to this pattern in that cities tend to distribute teachers and other resources "equally" among neighborhood schools. This presumable "equal" distribution is said to be achieved through the use of standards or ratios, applied uniformly throughout the system. These standards include pupil-teacher ratios and dollar-per-pupil ratios for many types of supplies and equipment. No decision of the School Board or its administration is more important than when these ratios are set. Yet, in Washington as in most cities, once established these are seldom reviewed or evaluated systematically by the Board or the public. Some exceptions to standard ratios are occasionally permitted, particularly where federal grants are involved (e.g., P.L. 874 and Title I of ESEA), but in general, the formulas are an inflexible but expedient way to allocate resources on an apparently uniform and "fair" basis. In fact, this facade of equality has concealed the common tendency of most city political mechanisms to distribute governmental services, including educational services, in proportion to expressed demands for the services.

If Washington is to become an exemplary school system, it must take urgent steps to reverse this historic tendency and allocate its educational resources -- teachers, materials, libraries and buildings -- on the basis of educational needs. If the nation, and particularly its Congress, are seriously interested in achieving meaningful quality in common schools, the traditional fiscal structure of public education must be radically altered to permit resources to flow where they are needed rather than only where they can be locally afforded. And where is a better place to begin these two tasks than in the federal city?

Should the District school system be decentralized, along with administrative decentralization would have to come a differential allocation of resources to specific areas and even buildings on the basis of educational need of those children in attendance. One way to accomplish this would be to utilize the "need formula" to rank schools for aid. The present formula for impact aid uses measures of median family income, the median years of education attained by adults and the reading retardation among school children. The relative weights now given these factors in distributing impact aid have been income level, 50 percent; educational attainment, 30 percent; and reading retardation, 20 percent. Quite probably, reading retardation should receive considerably greater weight because it is the most direct available measure of educational needs.

Further, as additional educational services flow to schools having higher levels of reading retardation, this factor would presumably decline while neighborhood income and adult educational attainment are more "stable" over time. It is possible to develop a set of formulas to allocate resources -- including teachers, supplies, books and other materials -- among decentralized and administrative units in inverse proportion to the ranking of the areas on impact aid factors.

The school's research staff should evaluate the formulas annually and present them for formal consideration by the Board of Education. Such evaluation would be an integral part of planning a Programmed Budget. As a principle, the Board should allocate a lump sum for supplies and equipment, leaving to local administrators at the building or area level the detailed decisions on specific purposes. The school system should continue central purchasing and storage of basic supplies but area superintendents might select from these supplies or "go outside" to meet their local needs.

The District and Congress

In past years, the school system did not push either the District or Congress too hard for funds. This conservative approach may have been good strategy at the time but its consequences were two: a lag in expenditures to pay for the system's needs and a subsequent mushrooming of problems. In recent years, the school administration's strategy (as well as the District's) has shifted to a strong presentation before Congress of its mounting budget demands. Undoubtedly, the growing interest taken by the President of the United States in the District's problems has strengthened the school's posture. In any event, it would appear appropriate now to increase pressure on Congress to authorize the kinds of support necessary for a federal city school system. It is absolutely essential that Congress be persuaded of its unique obligation to the District schools, nothing less than making them the testing ground for the federal commitment to educational programs. If this pressure is linked to impeccable documentation of the case for increased funds, chances of success are good. Otherwise an adverse reaction from Congress is to be anticipated.

Congressmen generally view the District schools in terms of their constitutents' schools back home. Presently, few of them approve greater support for the District's schools than for their own district, without persuasive reason. By envisioning a capital showcase for American schools, Washington's schools authorities can lay the basis for differential support. How should Congress be drafted into battle to transform the District school system into a national model? A first step might be the enlistment of an ad hoc group of distinguished Washingtonians by the Board of Education, persons who would advocate Congressional support for the educational needs of the community.

Generalizing about the relationship of Congress to the school system is, of course, hazardous. Congress is not a single body as much as it is a collection of individuals, each of whom acts in response to a fluidity of political and ideological forces, alliances and personal motives. Since Congress is the current source of ultimate power and responsibility in the District of Columbia's affairs, its relationships to the District are crucial.

Hopes for improvement in the District school system must rest on a combination of increased federal commitment together with some provision for increased local autonomy. It is not crystal clear that home rule would boost the real power District officials could wield or the amount of resources at their disposal. Some benefits would accrue under some degree of home rule, aside from the very obvious advantages of increased participation on the part of its citizens. For instance, the District could then float its own bond issues, facilitating capital construction and improvement while reducing interest rates. Further, greater flexibility in allocating funds might be achieved

than with present budget procedures. Finally, the District might become eligible for additional federal support under present state aid programs. While these are strong arguments to support the drive, home rule would not bequeath the instant panacea for the larger problems facing the District or for the model school system envisioned by some of its advocates.

Legislation vs. Appropriation. Only recently has the District submitted an unbalanced budget to Congress. It may be possible, theoretically, for the Appropriations Committees to approve a budget for more money than is anticipated from tax and federal contribution revenues. In practice, this is never done. Consequently, action by the Legislative Committees to authorize either higher taxes, an increased federal contribution or both, is necessary before the Appropriations Committees can approve a larger budget. The Appropriations Committees frequently hold hearings and reach decisions before the Legislative Committees. In the absence of legislative action, the Appropriations Committees feel bound to cut the budget back to a level supportable by assured funds. If subsequent legislation approves higher taxes or an increased federal contribution (prior action by the Appropriations Committees tends to take the pressure off the Legislative Committees), attempts must be made to restore slashed items. The system is clearly cumbersome and inefficient at best.

The House vs. the Senate. Congressional management of the District is further complicated by the fact that both House and Senate approval is required for legislation and appropriation. Aside from the problems of timing and general coordination between the two bodies, conflicts arise over disagreements on education, welfare, home rule and many other issues. Virtually no contact takes place between members of the District of Columbia Legislative and Appropriations Committees of the Senate and of the House, except under formal legislative conference conditions. Individual members of all of the committees or their staff members have informal contact with school system officials from time to time, depending on personal interest in education and the issues before the committees.

Congressional Staff Personnel. Since Congressmen are extraordinarily busy individuals, their staffs frequently play a critical role in the disposition of matters relating to the District. All sorts of information are available to members of Congress and their staffs on request; many individual Congressmen appear to be in touch with day-to-day decisions and events. Thus, while a description of the formal process might lead to the observation that Congress is unaware of what is going on in the District, such a conclusion is not consistent with actual practice. Particular Congressional staff members appear to be "on tap" of District happenings on practically a day-by-day basis.

Contacts with the School System. Many informal contacts take place between Congressmen and school staff members. Interestingly, compared with school administrators, members of the Board of Education are relatively unknown on the Hill. Although Board members are present for various committee hearings, it is the Superintendent of Schools and his staff who carry the main weight, answering questions and providing information requested. Interviews with Congressmen and their staff indicated that Dr. Carl Hansen was almost universally held in high regard on the Hill --- on no other issue did there seem to be such a degree of unanimity of opinion.

It should be noted in passing that the public press provides an important contact between what is going on in the community and Congress. Although dramatization of the plight of the schools by newspapers can serve to motivate members of Congress in beneficial directions, they also create embarrassment and annoyance. In interviews, several persons on the Hill mentioned the need for more information of a factual nature about the school system. No doubt, this is motivated in part by a desire to be able to respond.

to public criticism. It also reflects, however, a sincere desire to understand what the shouting is all about. The implication for the District's schools is clear: the desperate need both for sophisticated public relations and for a sizable investment in planning, research, and evaluation.

The Role of the President's Office

One key to the solution of some of the District's problems is the Office of the President of the United States. A great part of the credit for the increased commitment of Congress to the District government and for whatever movement has occurred in the direction of home rule may be attributed to the fact that presidents recently have taken an increased interest in District affairs. The Executive Branch has the ability to initiate programs and, in many cases, the political power to help get them through. In June 1967, President Johnson sent to Congress an Executive Order reorganizing the District government and some of its departments. How this order will affect the school system (not one of the departments reorganized) if implemented is not entirely clear at this point. The role of the President's Adviser on District Affairs can be especially significant in helping to develop the cooperative relations needed with Congress.

Relating to District Governmental Agencies

As do all school systems, the District must cooperate with other governmental agencies for operation of some programs. In these areas, the schools and the District agencies work as partners, each attempting to discharge functions for which it has main responsibility. Nevertheless, jurisdictional frictions and disagreements do occur.

Police. Responsibility for the protection of school property and the maintenance of order in extreme cases within the school generate contact between the Police Department and the school system. Where police supervision of pupil access to and from schools is necessary, further cooperation is provided between the two agencies. The police are also involved in safety programs as well as delinquency prevention and control activities.

Recreation. Conflict between the schools and the Department of Recreation revolves around the use of school facilities after hours for recreational purposes. Such use normally requires the presence of school personnel to make sure that buildings are not damaged and to provide custodial functions. Such school personnel, already employed full-time, must be paid overtime. The schools have also absorbed at least part of the costs for equipment such as lighting. The school system has been criticized for not being more cooperative and for not playing a larger role in community activities but it has been reluctant to commit any sizable resources to programs it currently perceives as somewhat tangential.

Health Services. The major area of conflict between the schools and the District Health Department concerns which agency should have responsibility for services provided in schools: whether school nurses should be school or Health Department employees. Presently, secondary school nurses are employed by the schools; elementary school nurses by the city. Both the schools and the Health Department would like all the school nurses under its control. This issue is discussed in greater detail in connection with the health services provided in the schools.

City Planning. As in any large city, planning activities in the District are carried out by several agencies, none of which has any real power to insure the implementation of its program proposals. The school system is represented on the National Capitol Planning Commission, which functions in an advisory capacity to the District government.

Naturally, most problems involving the NCPC and the school system are concerned with new school construction and site location. The Commission's powers are mainly negative: i.e., if it decides, on the basis of studies, that a new school is unnecessary in a particular area, its recommendations may result in the denial of budget requests for construction. The relative weakness of the school system's planning staff puts the Board of Education in a position of distinct disadvantage if its proposals are not in agreement with those of the Planning Commission.

In Summary

The relationships of the school system to Congress and the District government lead to several observations.

The Need for Better Planning Facilities Within the School System. The weakness of the school system in developing long-range plans is apparent at several points. Not only does this weakness affect the ability to justify budget requests but it also has an influence on such things as (a) the insulation of the Board of Education from the school administration in terms of the ability of the latter to participate actively in policy decision-making; (b) the feeling on the part of the community that developments within the school system occur without community consultation and too late to permit realistic expression of community opinions; and (c) the ability of the school to create a favorable climate of acceptance for its policies through intelligent public relations. It weakens the school system's position in relation to other planning groups, in those situations where disagreements arise concerning the future of the District of Columbia.

Obviously, any major effort to institutionalize planning functions within the school system requires explicit specification of relationships of planning staffs to research and evaluation personnel and policy-makers including the Superintendent of Schools and the Board of Education.

Justification and the Establishment of Priorities. Assignment of priorities and justifications especially in the case of capital budget requests, requires far better planning, research and evaluation. The regular employment of educational and social science consultants to prepare research-based materials in support of proposed school programs is essential. Such specialist consultants should be institutionalized as a regular part of the planning staff.

Policy and planning development, both on the part of the Board of Education and the school administration, would be facilitated by a staff which would provide background memoranda for discussions of alternative policies and goals. This, in turn, could lead to a closer relationship between the school administration and the Board of Education in matters of policy development. A major effort must be made to convince Congressmen of the fact that substantially greater per-pupil expenditure rates are indeed justified for the District of Columbia. Sound documentation would help in developing the essential climate for change.

Need for Flexibility in the Use of Funds in Program Development and the Establishment of New Organizational Forms. Operating as it does within restrictions of a line-item budget, a cumbersome budgetary process, timing delays in authorization and appropriation, and requirements of civil service regulations, the school system lacks the flexibility necessary to adapt to changing educational needs and innovational opportunities. The budgetary process is a long and complicated one which creates additional constraints on the introduction of new programs within the system as well as the maintenance of old ones. Whether or not some form of home rule involving fiscal autonomy

either for the District as a whole or for the Board of Education alone (as has been recommended in the House) is forthcoming, it should be possible to get Congress to modify its line-item budget requirements in the case of the school system or, at the very least, to make provision for the establishment of some discretionary funds. While such proposals would require changes in the D. C. code, they probably will not run into the same opposition as do home rule bills. If full autonomy is not possible at this point and if there are questions about the impact of such home rule in the District, certainly some areas of freedom within the existing structure are indeed feasible for the school system now.

The District government and its schools should be permitted to issue long-term bonds to be repaid from local property tax levies. The maximum amount of school bonds outstanding at any given time should be regulated as a percentage of the assessed or full market value of property in the District. The limit between five and ten percent of the District's present assessed value of more than $3 billion dollars of real property will not violate accepted fiscal practice and would offer reasonable hope that the District could secure the money it needs to meet its long-range school construction requirements. Furthermore, it is possible that a bonding procedure would represent a net savings in money; the 4-3/4% Treasury interest rate during the last half of 1966 was much higher than the interest on bonds for a good many school districts during that period.

Community Support for the School System in Its Relationships to Congress and the District Government. A notable deficiency in dealings between the school system and Congress and the District government has been the lack of support from individuals and organizations occupying positions of significant power within the community, most notably the business community. Attempts should be made to attract such support and actively to involve community leaders in school affairs. The school system needs powerful allies and a concerted campaign must be mounted to find and enlist them.

Finally, new financial inputs are necessary and different arrangements are required for providing the District schools with the funds essential for the task faced. Building a model urban school system, will take massive increases in funding in the immediate future and probably the next decade or so. Such support is only likely to come with the development of solid programs rather than requests for general aid. The implementation of the recommendation for an Office of Planning, Research and Evaluation coupled with the development of a Programmed Budgeting System would aid in building a sound basis for financial requests. In the meantime, Congress and the District government could easily realize the promise of certain immediate benefits which would come from procedural modifications recognizing a difference between the academic and fiscal years.

Chapter 11

The Instructional Program in the District Schools

A. Preliminary Comments[1/]

Instruction in the Washington schools was studied by a number of independent task forces, each consisting of one or more professors and several experienced teachers and administrators. Each task force wrote a report to the Study Director. Some of these reports were in the form of confidential statements; all of them were based on observation of classes in action, interviews with the relevant school personnel, and the examination of official school documents. Teachers also responded to questionnaires. This section dealing with instruction draws freely on these reports and, in some cases, reproduces them substantially as they were written. In their original form, they are exceedingly lengthy; an effort has been made to extract from them material that reflects their content accurately, and to stress the recommendations they contain.

Taken as a whole, the task forces report a distressing situation. Certain comments which were made repeatedly in the reports are summarized here:

1. The task forces in every instance found some teachers and some instructional leaders who in their view are as effective and as well-informed as any they have ever seen.

2. Washington, however, does not have its fair share of such people. The task forces did not find these effective people concentrated in a few schools, or consistently missing in some areas of the city. They appeared unexpectedly, and frequently without recognition on the part of the school system itself, almost anywhere.

3. Washington does not make use of effective leadership where it does appear. One gets the strong impression that the school system is so bound by hierarchical customs that the more advanced and subtle aspects of instruction are not nearly so systematically rewarded as is the ability to get along with the system.

4. There is a break in the middle of the administration of the Washington schools. The most consistent theme running through the reports of the task forces is that the teachers in the classrooms are not in adequate contact with either the leadership in the central office or the teachers in other schools. Even in those areas where the task force considered the central office leadership highly effective, the reports reflect doubt that this leadership can be exerted within school buildings because of the lack of linkage between the central supervisory staff, the school principals, and the teachers.

5. A very large number of teachers in the schools are inadequately prepared to carry out their assigned responsibilities. The consequences of a prolonged habit of poverty, the impossibility of hiring additional teachers to serve for the following year -- thus losing the cream of the crop -- the pressure to man classes at all costs, and other local pressures have led the school board to employ hundreds of temporary teachers through the years. The presence of so many ill-qualified teachers in the school no doubt accounts for the many teachers who, according to the observers, are ritualistic, superficial in presenting subject matter, and fearful of the normal activeness of children. However, inadequate preparation cannot be equated with certification status.

1/ Dr. Arthur W. Foshay coordinated the instructional area task force reports and prepared the material on which this section is based.

6. In both the elementary and secondary schools, the observers were highly critical of the narrowness of the subject-matter offerings. Probably in the interest of doing a few things well, the schools too often have stripped the subjects to their most formal and least meaningful aspects, and have overlooked or in some cases subverted the subjects that might have given meaning to what is offered. This is most visible in the case of literacy. Obviously, if a child cannot read well, he cannot do much else of academic consequence. Proceeding from this truism, the schools appear to have construed reading as word-recognition, and word-recognition as phonics, thus turning reading into a program of ritual code-breaking generally devoid of substantive meaning. Not only this, but the other subjects (social studies, science, and even mathematics) offered at the elementary school level are either given short shrift or detoured into further exercises in reading. Yet, as the standardized testing results show, not enough children do in fact learn to read well.

In field after field, the task forces recommend a complete overhaul of instruction. They put a heavy emphasis on retraining the present staff, restaffing with people recently educated in their fields, using specialists from outside the system, revising the process for obtaining instructional materials, and evolving a new concept of curriculum. There are exceptions to this: the mathematics curriculum as planned is adequate, though many of the teachers are ill-prepared; the music program is acceptable, provided the new staffing authorized is not diverted to other purposes; the physical education program is carefully planned, but not enough time is alloted to it at the elementary level, nor have the teachers been prepared to teach it.

The first recommendation, therefore, is that substantial rebuilding of instruction be undertaken. An amount of money equal to 15 percent of the present operating budget could finance this during the first year. As the programs develop, amounts stepping up to 20-25 percent of the operating budget would be required -- within three to five years, depending on the program.

The other criticism common to most of the reports is that the linkage between the supervisors at the central office and the classroom teachers is inadequate. This arises from two characteristics of the system: (1) the central office staffs are too small for such a large system, and (2) the supervisory staffs have no authority over appointment and assignment of teachers. In the interest of decentralization of the schools, the building principals have been given exclusive authority in these matters. The consequence of this policy is that the programs in the school buildings reflect the principal's educational values, virtually unchecked by anyone else. What the principal does not understand (as in the fine arts) or does not value, he understaffs, underequips and ignores. The schools are at the mercy of the principals' knowledge. While a strong argument can be made for a building-centered approach to instructional development, the argument depends on principals who have the time, the disposition and the training to offer effective instructional leadership -- including consistent use of subject specialists. To reduce the instructional quality in a building to the content of the principal's education betrays the intent of those who plead for a democratically conceived, flexible approach to curriculum making.

It is also recommended that the central office specialists be given authority to propose new staff and staffing patterns, to examine personnel and curricular practices in the school buildings in their respective fields and to supervise the purchase of equipment and the provision of facilities for their programs.

In the absence of the very substantial changes these recommendations imply, the study staff does not consider it likely that the quality of instruction in the Washington schools will improve enough to justify large-scale additional expenditures in other areas. More money, within the present pattern, cannot be expected to produce the im-

provements required. The mere reduction of class size, unless accompanied by improved leadership and staffing, could not yield better instruction.

To the members of the task forces, one of the most distressing aspects of their experience in Washington was that they usually found themselves liking and respecting the members of the school staff as people of good will and devotion. But when they looked at what the staff was doing, they were often dismayed. It is likely that these same observers would be similarly dismayed if they were to visit other central cities. But Washington, our nation's capital, deserves better -- on behalf of all of us.

B. Early Childhood Education[1/]

Early Childhood Education is the term applied to school programs for children between three and eight years of age. The task force that studied the services to this group of children based its report on interviews conducted with various individuals and groups, the Director of Supervision and Instruction of Elementary Education and the director of the Head Start programs under the United Planning Organization. The members of the team visited the schools within the study sample and other pre-kindergarten programs in the districts, including Head Start Centers.

Pre-Kindergarten Programs. There is a recognition of the importance of pre-kindergarten programs but very little is being done in the school district during the regular school year to provide education for the young disadvantaged children. During 1966-67, private agencies provided school-year programs for approximately 350 children and the Model School Division supported programs for another 300 children. Thus, only 650 children out of an estimated 14,000 children who need programs designed to provide compensatory education for young disadvantaged children were being served. During the summer of 1966, approximately 7500 children were served in Head Start programs operated by public schools and private agencies. Slightly over half the $1.5 million budget came from OEO funds, the remainder from Title I, ESEA sources. In November 1966, 14 programs were in operation largely under private agency auspices. Three programs for children with special health needs were sponsored by the District's Health and Welfare Departments, and the Recreation Department sponsored one. Had there been more space, funds were available for approximately 300 additional children in 1966-67. Much of the space that was available in areas of economic deprivation is sub-standard, does not meet the safety code for occupancy by groups of young children. There are problems securing adequately trained staffs during the school year.

During the year a new corporation with an autonomous board was established to coordinate the work and administer all money from OEO to private agencies sponsoring Head Start programs. This corporation plans to provide curriculum specialists for program development and in-service education for staff, paraprofessionals and others who will work in the Head Start programs.

There has been very little communication and, in most cases, almost no liaison between the 14 programs now in operation and the public schools to which the children will go in kindergarten. The feeling of the agencies was that schools had rebuffed their efforts to work together on programs concerning Head Start children. Even in the summer programs sponsored jointly with the public schools, little effort had been made to establish communication between the staffs of summer programs and the teachers and principals of the schools the children came to in the fall.

The private agencies attempting to sponsor Head Start programs were critical of both the United Planning Organization and the public schools. Indeed, the New Corporation considered the difficulty of establishing appropriate relationships with the Board of Education to be among the most serious of the problems they face.

The District operated no pre-kindergarten programs except the five under the Model School Division. The Board of Education has recently authorized the inclusion of space for pre-kindergarten programs in all new schools to be constructed in depressed areas.

The task force's comment on their visit to a private agency Head Start program was flattering regarding the climate: "The teaching was extremely supportive and loving.

1/ Dr. Kenneth D. Wann prepared the report on which this section is based.

The children experienced warm and sympathetic adults who had accepting attitudes towards conflicts, spilled food, the need for cuddling, bathrooming, or almost anything else." However, concerning the content of the program, they observed: "There was very little effort to provide a program that could be regarded as intellectually stimulating. There was little emphasis on language development and the provision of perceptual-cognitive development considered so important to the deprived child." The observers made essentially the same set of comments about a Model School Division pre-kindergarten program: "Good physical facilities, excellent attitudes by the teachers, but only a little evidence of the consistent planning for compensatory education usually considered essential for children from deprived areas."

The Kindergarten Programs. While it is the policy in the Washington schools to limit kindergarten groups to a maximum of 30 children per session, morning and afternoon, the observers were told that 35 children per session was a more accurate figure. Both the morning and afternoon sessions are usually under the supervision of a single teacher, unassisted.

The emphasis in most of the programs observed was on a total group approach to work with the children. The teachers seemed quite efficient in moving whole groups in rapid succession from one activity to another. There were total group discussions, total group sharing of materials children had brought in, and total group story times. The entire group might be observed sitting at their desks coloring or painting or working with the teacher on language, using the Phonovisual materials. Most of the kindergarten activities observed were focused on reading readiness, conventionally conceived. There was a strong emphasis in these classes on correcting children's speech: children were frequently interrupted for such corrections when they were speaking. There was little work dealing with science, social studies, or other matters, at the kindergarten level, nor was there more than a little evidence of spontaneous rhythmic or music activities, although there was some directed singing or running or skipping in time with the music on a record player.

While the foregoing was the rule, there were some exceptions. One kindergarten program in a middle-income neighborhood was judged by the observer to be among the best that he had ever seen. The teacher was highly experienced and able to direct a great variety of activities. This classroom, in contrast with others observed, was rich in science and social studies materials and activities. However, the typical kindergarten program was depriving children of many opportunities to practice spontaneous speech and to experience independence and freedom of expression. The program as a whole emphasized dependence, not independence, conformity and obedience, not exploration. By and large the programs have not incorporated in the planning the insights which have emerged over the past few years on the nature of compensatory needs of disadvantaged children nor those concerning the intellectual development of kindergarteners.

The First Grade Program. With one or two exceptions the first grade program could be described as basically a language program with a strong emphasis on reading. Children were observed working in total groups on reading or pre-reading materials from workbooks, textbooks, or dittoed work sheets supplied by the teacher. There was a noticeable lack of concern and interest in encouraging the spontaneous language of children, or teaching them to hear accurately or to express ideas effectively.

This lack of concern for the development of oral language and the listening ability of children suggests a lack of insight into the real nature of the reading process and what is involved in preparing children to become effective readers. Drill in word recognition and word recall do not provide a sufficient basis for gaining the ability to read.

Again, there was little science or social studies and little emphasis on creative art, music or rhythmic expression. Here as in the kindergartens, the program observed was almost completely sedentary. Children did move from total group activities to small reading groups with the teacher while other children waited their turn and kept themselves busy in workbooks and worksheets. The impression of the task force was that the first grade classes were generally orderly and neat, but depressingly silent and overcontrolled.

The Junior Primary Program. The Junior Primary, which is an intermediate grade to give additional preparation for entering the first grade, was observed in some of the schools. It was difficult to distinguish between the Junior Primary program and the regular first grade program. Although the children placed in this program presumably needed a different kind of experience, they were observed undertaking the same kinds of tasks that those in first grade were carrying on -- using workbooks, textbooks and other written materials largely focused on learning to read. The programs were just as seat-bound as the first grade programs and just as lacking in oral language development. There was little attempt at enrichment by using other materials and other curriculum areas. Nor was there evidence of compensatory or remedial practices to provide for the needs of the children or prepare them for a regular first grade. There were no diagnostic procedures to help determine when a child might be transfered to a regular class.

Teachers had mixed reactions to the program -- some feeling that it made it possible for first grade teachers to work more effectively with more mature children -- others felt that it was really the beginning of a tracking system. The survey team found little to recommend the Junior Primary program either in intellectual stimulation or in promotion of readiness to read. Except for normal maturing, few procedures seemed aimed at preparing the child for the academic tasks he faced.

Interviews with Principals and Teachers. To get some indication of the level of aspiration that the teachers and the principals seemed to have, the teachers were interviewed in group sessions after school and the principals were consulted during the visits. The emphasis in these interviews was on the teachers' impressions concerning what they would like to have in improving and extending the school program.

The most consistent view expressed during these interviews was that the principals and teachers did not see that the program itself needed any extension or modification. They often recognized that the children were not learning as effectively as they would like, but they attributed this difficulty to the shortage of certain kinds of materials, the size of the groups, the lack of help from teacher aides and other sources, or to the children's backgrounds. While they expressed great concern about the reading program and ways for improving the teaching of reading, they did not see any relationship between this concern and the essentially meager offerings in other aspects of the program, nor did they speak of the connection between reading and speaking.

Teachers and principals said that they would like to have more teacher aides or assistance, spoke of the desirability of bringing in some special subject teachers. They did not mention additional supervisory help even when this question was put to them directly. They tended to feel that supervisory help was important only for new teachers. However, they did value supervisory bulletins, and the monthly newsletter from the kindergarten supervisor was often mentioned by the teachers as being helpful. Some teachers found the demonstration lessons occasionally presented at meetings of the kindergarten staffs useful. The teachers were critical of the central office staff for not being sufficiently supportive and for failing to recognize when they were doing a good job.

The principals said that they would like to have additional time for supervision. However, they thought that this time should be spent with the new teachers rather than with experienced teachers.

Recommendations. Based on these visits and interviews, plus an examination of the instructional materials and the directives from the central office, the task force makes the following recommendations:

It is recommended that the District extend downward schooling to incorporate what is now considered pre-schooling as a basic component of its "common school." Such an extension would make it possible to serve all of the four-year olds and selected three-year olds from disadvantaged areas who could profit from such an experience. There is sufficient research evidence to indicate the advantage in beginning programs early in language, nutrition and perceptual-cognitive development, to stimulate children to advance basic abilities during the important formative period before five years of age. There is some evidence that when carefully designed learning activities are incorporated in programs for young disadvantaged children and when their education begins early and involves parents in the development and extension of an educational program, it can be effective and bring about lasting changes.

At the same time as planning is initiated for the expansion of facilities and the employment of adequate staff, attention should be given to curriculum and methodologies appropriate for young children. The early childhood program should provide experiences, activities and materials specifically designed for the cognitive and motivational growth of young children.

The curriculum should be aimed at enhancing each child's cognitive growth, including extended perceptual skills, concept formation, abstract reasoning. Special emphasis should be placed on language and its functioning as a thinking tool. Such a program must be highly individualized, tailored to unlock each child's capacities and should inlcude continuing diagnosis of each child's developmental processes. The program should seek deliberately to compensate for children's experiential deficits.

To provide adequate staffing, a trained early childhood teacher will need to be provided for each group of children (the standard group size for four-year olds is from 12 to 14 children). Specialized helping personnel -- medical, psychological, social service -- should also be available to all the centers. In addition, paraprofessionals drawn from the community should be identified, specially trained for their tasks and employed on a regular bases. The latter procedure would not only determine an adequate adult-child ratio (generally considered to be three to five children per adult) and thus increase the possibilities of one-to-one relationships between children and adults; it would also have a significant effect on the attitudes and understandings of the adults. Consequently, parent education and involvement should become an integral part of the early childhood program.

It is recommended that the pre-kindergartens, kindergartens and first grades be designated as the Early Childhood Unit to assure continuity, sequencing and articulation through this period. The major purposes of this ungraded unit would be to emphasize cognitive development, develop social and interpersonal skills, enhance positive self concepts, develop understanding about people and things in the child's environment, and assure physical growth and healthy development.

Class size should not exceed 15 for the younger children and 20 in the older groups. The trained teacher's responsibility, in addition to instruction, would be to provide leadership for the team and be responsible for the program. Special funds should be provided to test presently available technology to determine its effectiveness with the District's population.

It is recommended that a vigorous retraining of the present staff and redevelopment of the primary program of instruction be initiated. The existing program is essentially a language arts program, with very little else being offered. Not all aspects of language development are given their necessary place and, in any case, passive reading is an insufficient goal for the education of five- and six-year-old children.

The present curriculum for young children is not consistent with contemporary ideas about early childhood programs. It focuses primarily on drill, on a narrow notion of reading readiness, on mechanical reading activities and ignores or eliminates many of the experiences in science, the social sciences, and other areas of information and understanding so essential to the development of four-, five-, and six-year-olds. It does not provide adequately for either physical or social development.

The Early Childhood Unit should be concerned with the development of a lively, inquisitive, engaged lifestyle at the center of its array of goals and the development of reading and language arts seen as a necessary adjunct of such a goal, rather than as a substitute for it.

It is recommended that a leadership core of supervisory personnel be developed and trained. People are needed who are specially prepared in early childhood education. Supervisors of elementary education will need in-service education themselves in order to become current in their understanding and comprehension of the problems and concerns of early childhood education as it is now viewed. Supervision is required not only from the central office but also within the schools themselves. No supervisor from the central office should be required to work with more than 15 schools, each of which requires a half-time curriculum coordinator to bring to life the results of the in-service work carried on from the center.

It is recommended that the Junior Primary program be dropped. A program should be developed that provides for individual differences in backgrounds and rates of learning and which avoids the stigma now attached to the Junior Primary as the beginning of the track system. The essentially passive nature of the educational experience for kindergarten and first grade children prepares them well for the kind of program that now exists in the upper elementary grades, but it does not correspond to the criteria usually applied to programs for young children. The materials in use are narrow in scope, and of limited value. Children who have a relatively narrow personal experience come to a school in which the experiences offered are even more narrow. A new conception of the goals for education in the pre-kindergarten, kindergarten, and first grade is required. A program based solely on the need for the development of reading does not even develop a reading program particularly well.

It is recommended that the District develop a consortium with college and university centers to engage in research on early childhood education, test materials and strategies, and upgrade teacher competencies.

C. The Programs in the Elementary Schools[1/]

In addition to the task forces in the subjects, one task force looked at the elementary school as a whole, seeking to find how the subject matter as actually taught matches the broader aims of the school, how single schools interpret central office policies, and what the meaning of the school experience as a whole is for the children. This task force dealt with the elementary curriculum and with the elementary school as a whole.

No description or assessment of the elementary schools of Washington is possible without some consideration of the Amidon Plan. Named for the elementary school where it was first tried, the Plan was explained in a book by its author, Carl F. Hansen.[2/] It is explained in operational detail in a curriculum bulletin, The Amidon Plan, in which the Plan was projected on a city-wide basis. The Plan is referred to frequently in the 1965 Handbook of Information for Teachers in the Elementary Schools.

For the purposes of this report, it is sufficient to indicate the broad intent and emphases of the Amidon Plan.

The distribution of daily time allotments provided in the Amidon Plan is interesting. The recommended city-wide time allotments are as follows:[3/]

Language (including reading, phono-visual, and spelling, handwriting, writing and grammar, oral language and speech, and literature)	45%
Social Studies	10%
Arithmetic	12%
Science	7%
Physical Education	7%
Music	6%
Art	5%
Health, rest, milk	8%

The general aims of the Amidon Plan for the children are implied by the following quotations from the Curriculum Bulletin of 1961-1962:

> The end product desired is not a spoon-fed, protected individual, but a self-disciplined personality capable of continuing education and intelligent decision making.
>
> Each child will be considered as an individual and given that care and affection which is a notable feature in all good teaching.
>
> Teaching is measured by the interaction between the teacher and pupils, and between pupils and pupils. The children supplement the textbooks with library work, research, and other enriching experiences.

1/ Dr. Alice M. Miel prepared a report on which the material in this section is drawn.

2/ In The Amidon Elementary School, A Successful Demonstration in Basic Education, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1962. The plan is described to the teachers in Washington in an official bulletin, The Amidon Plan for Education in the Sixties in the D.C.Public Schools, Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Printing Division, D. C. Government (undated).

3/ Source: Handbook of Information for Teachers in the Elementary Schools, op.cit.

> Quality, creativeness, and purposefulness are of greater value than quantity. Differences in ability, interests, and rates of learning are satisfied through activities varying from practicing or doing research, to collecting, interviewing, or experimenting.

The essence of the Amidon Plan appears to be the development of a very closely controlled series of learnings, with an emphasis on efficiency, the cultural role of the teacher, and a very heavy emphasis on the development of reading skill and correct usage in speaking and writing. The chief approach to teaching reading and writing is through the Phonovisual system. The curriculum is organized into separate subjects with a textbook for each of the eight basic subjects determining the scope and sequence of the subject matter to be covered.

The broad aims of the Amidon Plan correspond with the broad aims of education as stated by almost any responsible educator since 1900, when such statements began to appear in the literature. If there is a problem in the Washington elementary schools, it is the problem of translation of such aims into classroom activities that match them. The problem is universal in American elementary schools; it is central to a consideration of the quality of the D. C. schools. The degree of correspondence between the aims as stated and the activities in the classroom as observed are examined here.1/

The merits of the Amidon Plan will not be debated here: that debate has been completed. Dr. Hansen's book is a vigorous defense of the basic ideas, and especially of the centrality and the authority of the teacher in the teaching process.

Observer Impressions. The observers generally agreed on their first impressions. They were received courteously by principals and teachers, and the materials they had requested in advance (for example, a copy of the day's schedule and explanatory notes) had been prepared by most of the teachers to be visited. All the schools were neat and orderly. The teachers had done much to make their classrooms attractive, including the making of some displays. One observer wrote:

> Almost all displays, charts, models, and bulletin boards were teacher-made. The room gave an attractive appearance, but there was little in the room that had been made by a child, except for a few pictures of toys drawn by the children on an Our Plans for December chart, and some cut-out Indians on a Washington 1600-1900 map. Instructional materials seemed scarce, except for textbooks and the Phonovisual charts.

Orderliness and Tight Control. The central role of the teacher, emphasized in the Amidon Plan publications, was everywhere evident. The day's plan had been written on the board by the teacher before the school opened. No observers reported that the children in any class read the plans with their teacher, or had any part whatever in thinking

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1/ The data on which the present report is based exist in the form of a large number of observations by twenty-three experienced elementary teachers and administrators, specially trained to observe in Washington classrooms. Each of these people visited three teachers in one of the nine schools selected for close study on one day. On another day, three observers visited two additional schools in the sample. A single observer made a visit to the twelfth school in the sample, and visited two other schools outside the sample. The report is based, therefore, on approximately seventy-five classroom visits, spread over a random sample of the elementary schools in Washington. In addition, leadership personnel were interviewed and the statements of policy and other official curriculum documents from the Superintendent's office in Washington were examined.

about the order of events during the day. The plans were very similar from one classroom to another, regardless of grade level. The Curriculum Bulletin on the Amidon Plan stresses the importance of adherence to a schedule, pointing out, in passing, that the principal or teacher may vary the daily schedule to accommodate the need for reteaching an individual child or a group of children or to provide for special events. The bulletin also speaks of a "block" plan which would allow for some flexibility, but the comment on the daily time schedule concludes, admonishing the teacher that "it will be highly essential...to adhere as closely as possible to the daily schedule for her particular grade level" (p.26). In the circumstances, it is not surprising that the observers found little evidence of the teachers taking advantage of the block schedule or in any way being flexible in the handling of time. In fact, the clock seemed to be in charge of the classroom.

The striking characteristic of these classrooms was the quiet and orderliness that was everywhere apparent. The children seem compliant, obedient, and passive. During the period of the visitation, the children were spending most of their time on drill and reading and phonics, on reading for social studies information, and on working arithmetic problems.

Types of Teaching. Reading in the basal readers was done silently and then aloud with the children taking turns. Usually approximately half and sometimes all of the children in a given class were engaged in this same activity with the same material at the same time. The purpose of the reading was to find answers to the questions posed by the teacher, questions which invited factual answers concerning the content of the "story." In the classes visited, the observers found no trace of any multi-ethnic materials being read in the schools. The readers in use were representative of the white middle-class groups living outside of the city.

Drill on word recognition consisted of listening to the teacher's explanation of a word, noting the way the teacher used the word in a sentence, repeating the model sentence and responding to other exposures of the word. There was a heavy emphasis on the teaching of phonics. Children were being taught to recognize the phonetic elements of words, in isolation and as they were met in "reading" or "spelling" words. The Phonovisual Chart and the Phonovisual Workbook seemed to have an instructional life of their own, independent of other language materials.

The social studies material as observed sounded and looked to the observers like a continuation of reading instruction. One observer's notes represented the conclusion drawn by many others: "The topic was the Connecticut Valley. The lesson was...a review of what had been read before. It emphasized facts and the textbook." Again, there were no traces of attention to the Negro in America, nor to the current scene in Washington in any of the classrooms.

Mathematics as taught had little to do with the "contribution to discipline thinking and the inquiring mind" intended under the Amidon Plan. One of the observers noted: "The math being taught from a new text was supposed to incorporate the 'new' math into the arithmetic program. However, the children were learning it by rote. The goal of the children appeared to be to present a neat paper with perfect answers."

The general conclusion to be drawn from these observations is that whether by intent or not, the teachers in Washington have been led to stress reading at the expense of everything else and to place themselves as teachers in a highly directive role. Two-thirds of the school day was typically given over to activities intended to develop language skills in each of the class schedules examined. The basic approach to the teaching of reading was to drill on the recognition of words and the factual content of

the materials read. The bulk of the child's day seemed to be spent in a "read and recite" mode. Nothing else, not even arithmetic, looms as large or important. The child spent most of his day paying the closest possible attention to his teacher, following her directions, responding to her questions, and obeying her rules. The children were not encouraged to talk to one another, either formally or informally -- indeed, the principal technical criticism the observers had of the language program was that it did not seem to deal with speech. And the sad fact is that in spite of all this, the children don't really learn to read, as the test surveys have repeatedly shown. Doing the same thing, but doing it harder, would scarcely seem promising.

Instructional Materials and Resources. In a classroom in which the teacher is the primary source of knowledge and standard-setting, one would not expect instructional materials to be particularly necessary. Indeed, they do not seem to appear in the classrooms visited by this task force. All the teachers relied heavily on the chalkboard to present facts, develop skills and concepts, and make assignments. In most classrooms, a paper and pencil were the only materials the children used, aside from textbooks and a few workbooks. The textbooks were usually limited to one grade level, and often did not fit the pupils' instructional level. Multi-level texts and so-called "integrated textbooks" were not found. Supplementary books were scarce. For some classes the reference shelf consisted entirely of Thorndike-Barnhardt Dictionaries. In every class, however, there was a Phonovisual chart. In many classrooms there was a table or shelf with a few books, usually not displayed in an inviting manner. The observers noted "a few books," "twenty-five books," "twenty trade books with worn bindings and torn backs." Three of the observers saw no supplementary books at all.

The same thing seemed to be true of the school libraries in the schools visited. Most were not staffed with qualified librarians. One school library had about 100 books. Another had rigidly scheduled library periods (1/2 hour per week) and a rule that teachers must sign out all books for the children. One teacher spoke bitterly about this situation: "Everything around here is locked up for fear that the children will contaminate it." Another said the children were not allowed to take the books home for fear of losing them. Many teachers had turned to the public library.

Eleven observers found a semblance of a science center in the room. "Each first and second grade room visited had at the front of the room a science table with shelves, pine cones, a book or two, a cricket, some rocks, a fish bowl, some pine needles." "A pile of unlabeled rocks were on the science table. A sign on the table read, "Do not touch."

Of the 20 observers, 10 reported that they saw no signs of audio-visual materials in the classrooms they visited. One reported seeing a filmstrip in use, another a film, a third a record player. In only one instance was a globe or wall map seen being used.

Everywhere, the teacher is dominant. Most of the classrooms have adequate bulletin boards, but the displays were typically teacher-constructed, and seemed to the observers to lack depth.

> A large bulletin board gave a prominent place to a card outline of the United States. A solitary paper lobster along with a fish were glued along the Northeast seacoast while accordion folded paper seemed to represent the eastern mountain chain. The teacher had made the outline of the map. She spoke proudly of the crumpled paper mountains and the lobster and the fish as the childrens' share of the work. The map outline, the two sea creatures, page numbers concerned with the textbook references on the region, and several questions constituted the display part of a complete unit of work on the Northeastern region of the United States.

In another school, "the principal stated that the teachers had put up the bulletin boards in the entrance hall because she wanted to be sure that they 'looked just right.'"

Use of Specialists. The teachers complained that the art and science specialists were scheduled too infrequently (not even monthly in comparison with music, scheduled once a week; science only on call and often not available). On one day of visitation in several schools, groups were made ready for the foreign language teacher, or the class was sent to another room, only to find that the foreign language class had been cancelled. Elementary supervisors apparently work primarily with new teachers.

Emotional-Social-Intellectual Climate. The basic climate in the elementary schools has been strongly implied by the description of the Amidon Plan and by the observations already reported. The most striking characteristic of the classrooms to the observers was the lack of movement. This was sometimes attributable to the small classroom space. However, even in a large room one observer noticed that "the desks were spread all over the area, maximizing separateness."

This comment is typical of many others made by the observers:

> In the three grades visited the children were told what to do, how to do it, and were expected to unquestioningly follow the teachers' directions. The children sang when instructed to do so, chorused responses when given recognized signals, and worked on written assignments, copying exercises from the chalkboard. The children spent most of the day writing at their desks, rarely speaking except in chorus. No one argued, disagreed, or questioned anything. At no time when I was in the room did any child ask a question.

The many observations that made this same point lead to the conclusion that children in the elementary schools visited by this task force were having abundant opportunities to overlearn passive conformity. When the teacher has all the ideas, gives all the directions, handles all the materials, and admonishes the children to sit still and not talk -- if they do not rebel or withdraw completely -- most children respond with an unquestioning acceptance of the teacher's rulings on all matters. For instance, "a child was not allowed to color his Hallowe'en pumpkin green, even though the teacher had just read a poem referring to the green of a pumpkin when it was small."

In an arithmetic class, the teacher asked children to describe a set consisting of a puppy, a chick, and a kitten. The children tried "fuzzy," "farm animals," "pets." All were dismissed as incorrect without discussion or explanation. The teacher was waiting for the children to say "baby animals," but the answer never came.

There was a certain amount of impersonality: several of the observers were struck with the number of teachers who addressed children as "little girl" or "little boy" rather than by name. Children were often seated in the classroom by reading level. A certain amount of sharp-edged talk appeared in the classrooms. One of the observers, obviously shocked, wrote as follows: "I think I have seen for the first time a situation in which personal and individualized instruction was used as a means of masked annihilation. Every comment, positive or negative, was in the form of a public announcement. It seemed as if everyone's faults were on display."

The observers were asked to pay particular attention to the emotional climate in the room. In only 7 of the 69 classrooms visited in one day did they consider the emotional climate to be "warm." In most of the classrooms the emotional climate was neither cold nor warm. Teachers were decent to children; the observers heard very few

raised voices. The teachers act as if warmth and sensitivity to individual feelings were somehow in conflict with the intellectual purposes of school instruction.

The observers considered education in the elementary schools they visited to be depersonalized, unimaginative and non-thought provoking. Most of the teachers and principals appear to have chosen to implement those aspects of the Amidon Plan that are most external to its purposes -- the time schedules, the separateness of subjects, the accent on the teacher's governing role and the emphasis on instruction which is most arbitrary and least reasonable. Teachers seemed not to have paid attention to that part of the intent of the plan which calls attention to self-direction, the consideration of the individual, the necessity for interaction, and the need for a rich curriculum. As one observer noted, teachers seemed to regard the child as a "piece of children" rather than as an individual human being.

Obviously these characterizations of the elementary program as a whole do not fit all the cases. There were teachers who seemed to the observers to be doing a sensitive, imaginative job -- but such observations were sparse. The schools appear to have substituted efficiency for imagination.

Recommendations. As part of its work, the task force gave special attention to the question of correspondence between the system's goals for the children and the aims as represented in practice. One principal problem is the weak linkage between the central office and the classroom. The fact that so many of the classes seemed to be almost a caricature not only of the Amidon Plan but of any other view of sound elementary education -- arises from the lack of connection between levels. Where there is a severe shortage of qualified teachers and when the instructional program is floundering, the focus of improvement efforts must be on staff and instruction. Supervision, in the sense of helping staff teach better, is a critical link.

In there circumstances, the principle recommendation of this task force is for a very extensive program for redevelopment of the basic teaching competency of the school staff, through the incorporation of a middle level of supervision now missing. Neither the Amidon Plan nor any other plan is likely to be interpreted effectively, given the present situation. Since the Amidon Plan has been so widely misinterpreted and the misinterpretations have been institutionalized, it is recommended that the plan be abandoned as a system-wide design and that a fresh conception of the meaning of elementary education be developed in the schools.

Redevelopment is needed in almost every way. A comprehensive program of redevelopment will have to include class management, the teaching of the basic skill area, the use of materials of instruction, the development of coherent curriculum episodes, the use of specialties and of specialists both from within the school system and out of it, experimentation with teaching teams and new organizational patterns. The effect of the stress on a limited skill-centered view of knowledge brought about through the Amidon Plan has been to narrow the school's function so as to make it irrelevant. In a school system devoted almost exclusively to reading, children are not learning to read.

The basic recommendation is that the entire elementary school staff be drawn into a curriculum redevelopment. To say this is not, of course, to imply that the whole staff be plunged simultaneously into a program on a crash basis. The redevelopment will have to be planned. As steps in the direction of such planning, the task forces recommend the following:

1. Devote a substantial fraction (20 percent is suggested) of the teacher's time to continuing in-service work. The imposition of a single city-wide plan is neither

necessary nor has it been profitable; instruction must allow for differences between schools as well as between children. The responsibility for the quality of the curriculum has to be fixed on the classroom teacher and the principal, not taken from them by a central authority. When responsibility for instruction is fixed at the school and classroom level, then the teacher must be provided with the specialized support services which enable her to fulfill this role. Those policies of the school system which require detailed uniformity of schedule, materials, grouping, and testing should be replaced by policies developed at the community and building level, subject to review, but not detailed control by the central office.

2. Employ teachers for the calendar year. With 12 months instead of 10, the teachers may have one month of vacation and still have time for intensive workshops and courses and for released time spaced throughout the year.

3. Employ curriculum coordinators or supervising teachers or instructional leaders on a ratio of one for each 20 elementary school teachers in the district, to improve the linkage between the school, the community office, and the central office. The basic function of these coordinators would be to lead and consult in school study experimentation at the classroom level calling upon the central office for specialized help as necessary and being free to call upon the community as whole for specialized knowledge.

4. Develop instructional teams with leaders who are provided the time to work with their teams in improving instruction. There are competent and outstanding teachers in the system who can be located and promoted to a leadership assignment which will not take them out of the classroom but will put them in contact with greater numbers of learners and teachers. In effect, the original notion of team teaching as a means of instructional improvement will be implemented rather than its organizational aspects, promoting good teachers in the classroom rather than to administrative posts.

5. There are within the schools a number of individual teachers and principals who seem to understand the requirements of an effective elementary school program. Repeatedly, they either said or implied that their ideas could not be heard within the present structure. They were not in contact with one another, nor were they in contact with their superiors in the hierarchy. A good deal of the leadership for the redevelopment proposed here is already in place. As the school system as a whole is redeveloped, systematic approaches to the locating of such leadership should be made a regular part of the work of the central office and of the regional offices. The leadership should be fully engaged on a systematic basis in the redevelopment recommended.

6. Create a curriculum advisory council made up of teachers, principals, and community citizens from the District as a whole and few community subdivisions. Create a direct relationship to the central research and development division which will have the necessary specialized resources for curriculum development and materials production.

Redevelopment is needed in every aspect of the school instructional program and in the balance of the program as a whole. What is recommended here is a major shift in staff utilization to strengthen classroom instruction. The teacher and the principal must have the specialized personnel, services, time and resources to initiate this continuing upgrading. Teachers must be given time to plan and to improve their own skills and competencies by redeploying present personnel resources and using specialized resources in different ways. Unless the schools lock children into a technology in which the "system" controls instruction and the teacher becomes a minor technician, the classroom teacher will remain the central force for quality control of learning. Thus, the focus of efforts to improve must be on her.

D. Language Arts and English[1/]

The task force that examined the teaching of the language arts (reading, literature, writing, speaking) looked at the program and the teaching processes in both the elementary and secondary schools. Special reports were prepared on the remedial reading program and the linguistics project. The data on which the task force based its recommendations consist of a series of observations, interviews, questionnaires for teachers and the study of teaching materials.

Language Arts. The language arts program in the Washington schools cannot be discussed as a whole, because it does not exist as a whole. The most significant developments in this field have taken place in several projects carried on during the past few years. The task force was favorably impressed both with the quality and the results of these innovative undertakings. However, it seemed quite evident that the experiments would have little effect on schools outside of those in which they were carried on, since the school system does not provide for the kind of linkage that would be required for the dissemination of promising practices. Each school in the system seems to function as a separate principality with the inevitable conflict in role between the principal and the central office supervisor, and a staff of teachers who feel very remote from any city-wide leadership that might exist. The general impression of the task force is that the program is scattered and uneven.

For example, the program developed by the Center for Applied Linguistics began in the Fall of 1965. The projected date for its conclusion is July, 1969. The program is specifically directed at the language problems of D. C. students. It has the following objectives:

1. To analyze the non-standard dialect of English spoken by Negro children of a lower socio-economic stratum in the District.

2. To contrast the features of this dialect with standard English.

3. To prepare materials for teaching standard English to such Negroes. Fourteen schools are participating in the "urban language study," as this project is called: three elementary schools, six junior high schools, three senior high schools, one vocational school, and one adult school. The observer who studied the urban language project had suggestions to offer, which are typical of those associated with new projects in Washington.

> Its results should be of benefit not only to the D.C. schools, but to all urban schools with similar student populations. In order to achieve these results, however, two aspects of the program which involve the D.C. public school program participation must be improved. The first is the establishment of the adequate communication, concerning which agency is responsible for which part of the activity... The second is the teacher-training program. Again communication is involved. A teacher who is the designated representative of her school told me that there had been five workshop meetings before she knew about it... The urban language study has a valid place in the D.C. public school system if the administrative personnel of both agencies achieve mutual understanding of each other's problems.

1/ Dr. Geraldine LaRocque coordinated preparation of the report on which this section is based.

During the school years from January 1961 to June 1965, first 7, then 14 schools of the District of Columbia carried on a Great Cities Gray Areas Program for "improving education for culturally different children." An intensive Language Arts Program was set up in the kindergarten, junior primary, and grades one through three. The aim was increased facility and comprehension in oral and written language to be achieved through (1) creating an environment to foster language skill, (2) fitting the program to the needs of the culturally deprived, (3) working toward long range goals for developing techniques and new curriculum materials, (4) increasing the efficiency of the teachers, and (5) interesting parents in their children's progress in language through a program of community visitation and increased use of cultural facilities.

A skilled teacher of the language arts was assigned to each school to help develop an appropriate curriculum to demonstrate teaching procedures for individual teachers in their classrooms, to prepare curriculum materials, and to stimulate experimentation leading to improved methods of teaching. Money was made available for additional supplies, better library collections, excursions to places of interest in the District, and for bringing in specialists for teacher in-service work. Television sets, films, "language masters," and overhead projectors were bought, and special remedial services were made available outside the classroom. The program made use of some of the best of the recently developed practices in its field.

During the course of the experiment, P.T.A.'s grew in size and vigor. Field trip activity was high: 409 parents went on field trips planned especially for them; 979 accompanied their children on such trips; and 241 visited art galleries, libraries, and the like. There was a 104 percent increase in parent interest and participation in school programs, and a 43 percent increase in paid up P.T.A. membership. In the original seven schools, the increase in parent participation was 68 percent. Enrollment in mothers' groups increased more than four-fold. For the project schools, 6,063 paperback books were bought. There were three book fairs a year. A citizens group gave each child in the project four or five paperback books of his own.

The evaluation of the program was carried on by George Washington University as a special project. The results have been summarized as follows: (1) the children in the experimental groups had increased in self confidence and had more positive attitudes toward learning; (2) they had definitely improved in communicating with others; (3) they were superior in literary appreciation; (4) they had improved in word recognition, sentence reading, and paragraph reading; (5) fifty percent read at or near their grade level -- that is, up to or near the national median; (6) the experimental groups proved to be better in word recognition and sentence reading than in paragrpah reading; (7) the presence of kindergartens in 60 percent of the project schools and of the junior primary group was of great value; (8) growth in all language power was notable -- that is, in the use of complete sentences as opposed to monosyllabic replies to questions; (9) the increase in the number who owned library cards was 2.1 percent, which was evident of the need for school libraries. Little children were found to be dependent upon adults to take them to the local library, which might be many blocks from their home.

Similarly, the task force found much that they admired in the program of the Model School Division at Cardozo High School. They also took note of the experimental programs dealing with the Initial Teaching Alphabet (i.t.a.), Uniphon, Words in Color and the use of the SRA (Science Research Associates) language laboratories. The problem in Washington is not that good ideas are not in operation in the system. The problem is that the good ideas do not spread.

Language Arts in the Elementary School. The District of Columbia uses the Phonovisual System, which is centered on the use of Phonovisual charts.1/ There are two such

1/ Carl F. Hansen, (Superintendent of Schools, District of Columbia), The Amidon Elementary School: A Successful Demonstration in Basic Education, (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1962), p. 118.

charts -- one for consonants and one for vowels. Beside each consonant is a picture -- a pig for p, a bear for b, a wheel for wh, a queen for qu, and so on. For th, there are the figure 3 and the word this. The phonovisual vowel chart uses the same technique. Children are supposed to engage in drill on these sounds in the kindergarten for 15 minutes daily. The time increases to 20 minutes in the junior primary year, and to 25 minutes in grades one through three. All these programs are distinct from the program in reading. Spelling as a subject and word analysis accompany the process in grades three through six.

According to Dr. Hansen, "The purpose of the program is to develop independence in word attack." Back of it also is the conviction that "knowing about words for the sake of knowing" is a valid objective. "The program should broaden," he says, "to include the study of words not only as having phonic characteristics, but also as having structure and metaphorical and grammatical elements which influence meaning." 1/ "Phonics," he believes, "should be taught as a systematic subject -- not incidentally in the reading program, for the teaching of phonics does not insure emphasis on reading for meaning, which should be done in the reading period." The program emphasizes the fact that "to wait to sound out words until the end of the third year is to show ignorance of what children can do." 1/

The usefulness of phonics as one element in word recognition is generally recognized throughout the country. That it can be detrimental if it is segregated from other equally important techniques for discovering meaning is also generally acknowledged. It does little good for a child to sound out a word accurately if, once he has done so, he has no background of experience for knowing what the word means. Because most disadvantaged children labor under this handicap, overemphasis upon mere phonics can be especially frustrating for them.

Context clues to meaning are fundamental as are visual perception, finding familiar parts within words and analytic processes such as structural analysis, recognizing large known parts within words, and systematic visual study. For these and other reasons, the schools of the District should reconsider the segregated attack upon phonics.

Literature. In the elementary schools, teachers are furnished with charts called Direction Finders for various aspects of the program which are cumulative through the sixth grade. Chart I lists Poets Every Child Should Know and suggests two or more poems by each of these poets for each grade. Then follows Other Poems to Grow On, which are grouped under Nature, Fairies, and The Children's World. At the foot of the chart is a list of anthologies of verse and four volumes by individual poets: Frost, Milne, Stevenson, and Rossetti. A list is furnished also of seven recommended editions of Mother Goose.

Direction Finders for Prose includes a section on Folk and Fairy Stories, Myths, Fables, and Epics, which covers both old favorites and new from Joseph Jacobs, Asbjornsen and Moe, the Grimm Brothers, Perrault, Aesop, Paul Bunyan, the Greek myths and hero stories of King Arthur, Robin Hood and the Far North. It is followed by a group of fanciful tales, a generous selection of realistic stories, and biography. The range in difficulty is from the kindergarten to grade nine.

Leaving aside the basic question of the relevance of these selections for today's Washington Negroes, it would be helpful if some indication could be given to teachers of the relative difficulty of the titles listed within a given grade on the Direction Finders chart. It can be assumed that most of the fairy and folk tales, the myths and the fables, which can be used in the kindergarten through grade three, will be read aloud

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1/ Ibid., p.121.

to the children. With two or three exceptions, they are in the K-3 range in the Children's Catalog. Books for grades two and three, presented in chart, range in difficulty from the kindergarten years up through grade five. Rabbit Hill and Winnie the Pooh have ratings of grades three through five. In grade four, there are ten books which represent the fourth grade level of difficulty and two, the third. Six represent the reading level of the sixth or seventh grade. Sixth grade books are distributed from the fourth through the ninth grade in initial usefulness, the widest range of all. It is reasonable to suppose that reading ability in that grade would be more widely spread than in any other. No information of this type is supplied. Ease and difficulty represent only one of the criteria required for choosing books for children. The content of the books should satisfy the interests of the children who read them. For that reason, teachers who look for books at the third grade level of difficulty need to know which represent an appropriate level of interest.

The observer did not see any evidence that these books were in the classrooms, nor was there any notation on the blackboards concerning them. One teacher read aloud The Fox and the Grapes. When the observer asked to what extent the Direction Chart in Literature was used, he was told, "We choose from it what is suitable for our children." It is quite possible that many of the children will have to become acquainted with the world's great classics chiefly by storytelling or by the use of films and recordings.

Number of Books Rated as Suitable for Different Grade Levels

Grade Levels	Grade 4		Grade 5		Grade 6	
	Beginning	End	Beginning	End	Beginning	End
3	2	-	-	-	-	-
4	10	-	9	-	4	-
5	-	1	6	-	8	-
6	4	8	1	5	5	-
7	2	3	1	5	4	6
8	-	1	-	3	-	8
9	-	5	-	4	-	7
Totals	18	18	17*	17	21**	21

* No ranking is given for Wind in the Willows.
** Includes four Shoes stories.

Direction Finders for Literature-Poetry. Children in Washington are fortunate to have an emphasis on poetry in their literature program. However, the observer did not see any of the books on the Direction Finders in use in the classrooms visited. One kindergarten class listened to and dramatized a story called Frosty the Snowman, from the Golden Books.

The poetry program has a dual emphasis on poems organized by themes and poems grouped by author under the heading Poets Every Child Should Know. The chief problem with the latter section is that the makers of the list felt it necessary to put some poems by each poet into every grade in the elementary school, or at least in a sequence of three grades or more. In some cases, this led to misplacement of poems -- especially those of Blake, Wordsworth, Shakespeare, and Tennyson. On the other hand, Walter de LaMare, A. A. Milne, Robert Louis Stevenson, Vachel Lindsay, Edward Lear and Lewis Carroll, who occupy an important place in American and English literature, add much to the

richness of the program. In addition, Robert Frost, Carl Sandburg, Emily Dickinson, and Henry W. Longfellow are represented by poems useful in the intermediate grades.

The list needs try-out and revision for elimination of outmoded material like Christina Rossetti's "What Does a Bee Do?" and "Growing in the Vale." It also needs try-out for adequacy of grade-placement.

Selections grouped by theme are especially important for the elementary school program. With a few exceptions, the specific selections recommended for kindergarten through grade four appear to be adequately placed. The poetry program for grades four through six seems weak in the list under theme categories as contrasted with that organized by authors. Of course, many of the titles under the authors' names would contribute much to the categories listed in the lower part of the chart. Perhaps reorganization of the whole list by theme, with a notation at the end of important authors, might be wise.

In the description of the literature program in The Amidon School, Dr. Hansen is scornful of "work-horse prose, useful on a pedestrian level -- like books about mailmen and policemen, how to get along with the boy next door, or how to care for pets." His allegiance is to "literature, imaginative, pleasing, elevating, and beautiful... to be taught with one objective in mind: the cultivation of pleasure in the words and ideas of good writing."1/ This is what the list represents.

The all-but-complete absence of humorous poems is very noticeable in the selections presented. There are a few poems by Negro poets among the selections on the Direction Finders. Because of the very considerable contribution of the Negro to American poetry, this could be greatly expanded and help enhance the Negro children's sense of pride.

There is little evidence, however, of use of any of the selections on the Direction Finders in the schools the observer visited. In two of them, one copy of each anthology was available in the library. The heavy emphasis in the classroom was on "reading the reader."

Composition. Letter writing in the Washington program begins in the kindergarten with watching the teacher write dictated notes requiring a greeting, a body, and a closing. In the junior primary, the teacher begins to teach these forms, and in grade one adds such correspondence as greetings, invitations, letters of acceptance, and thank you notes. These are to be taught and retaught until mastery is secured in grades five and six.

Business letter form is introduced in grades two, taught in grade three with a variety of types of business letters and maintained until mastery is secured in grade six. Correct form for the return address is also introduced in grade three along with proofreading and is maintained thereafter.

Oral book reporting begins in the junior primary, is recorded in grade one and is reduced to writing in one paragraph in grade two. More lengthy and detailed book reports and reviews are written in grade four. From this point on, accuracy of facts and exactness of meaning are emphasized.

Reports, summaries and simple outlining are introduced in grade two and elaborated later. Outlines with one level of subordination appear in grade four and with two levels in grade six. Accurate copying begins with the child's name in kindergarten and is extended to other appropriate materials throughout the grades.

1/ Hansen, op. cit., p. 125.

The making of a bibliography and writing original articles and editorials are taught as needed from the fourth grade on. The importance of credit lines for quoted material is introduced in grade five. Use of blank forms with name, age, grade, date and the name of the school and teacher is begun in grade two with personal history, questionnaires and other blanks following in grade four. The writing of minutes is taught in grades five and six as needed.

According to the Direction Finders, children in Washington are encouraged to dictate short original poems and stories from the kindergarten on. By grade one they are ready to write them for themselves. In the third grade they write short, imaginative stories with attention to opening, plot development, climax, and ending. Longer imaginative stories are written according to the same standards in grade five. Poetry writing is encouraged throughout with special attention to good form, expression, and originality in the intermediate grades. Despite this plan, the observer did not see any writing going on in the schools he visited.

Grammar. Sentence sense is stressed particularly in the curriculum plans because so many of the Washington children tend to respond to questions with single-word answers. The concept of the sentence is introduced through usage in the kindergarten. Then, the idea of the complete thought is added in the junior primary year along with the concept of telling and asking sentences, the use of the initial capital, and an appropriate mark of punctuation at the end.

In the second grade children are introduced to sentences that command, request, or exclaim and to the proper punctuation for each. Variety in word order is also considered, and the notion of sentence parts (subject and predicate) is introduced.

Simple diagramming is begun in the third grade together with the teaching of agreement of verb and subject, and the relationship of pronoun and antecedent. Consideration of phrases and clauses is also begun at this level. With the exception of the kinds of phrases and clauses and the use of transitions in writing, which appear in the fifth grade, all the rest of the grammar taught in the elementary school is concentrated in the fourth grade, the fifth and sixth being open for review, reteaching, and the establishment of accuracy. In grade four, the children are taught the concept of declarative, interrogative, and imperative sentences, sentence completeness, and the subject and predicate relationship. Use of compound and complex sentences is also taught here with emphasis upon use of subordinating conjunctions to avoid loose use of and and choppy or run-on sentences.

The concept of the paragraph and of paragraph form is introduced in grade two with emphasis upon topic sentences and the paragraphing of conversation in grade four and upon use of transitional words in grade six.

In addition to the treatment in the Direction Finders for composition and creative writing, a second chart outlines a program in "formal grammar" from the junior primary grade through grade six. First grade children are to learn the meaning and correct use of name words, action words, and all personal pronouns. The teacher is to introduce the use of articles, of interjections and the meaning and correct use of the conjunctions and, but, and or. The use of interjections is to be explained as needed.

In grade two, children are introduced to nouns, verbs, and adjectives, reviewing the work of grade one while learning the grammatical names of the major parts of speech. In grade three they are to practice the use of adverbs such as when, where, why, and how, to learn the correct use of prepositions, and to review personal pronouns and connectives learned earlier. In grade four they learn the meaning and correct use of all

parts of speech in relation to sentence structure. Grades five and six reteach all the forms presented earlier and the case uses and reference of pronouns, together with the meaning and correct use of a variety of connectives.

Finally, Chart III of the Mechanics of Writing deals with punctuation, enumerating all the uses of the period, question mark, exclamation point, comma, quotation marks, apostrophe, colon, semi-colon, and hyphen. Teaching of these elements is largely concentrated in grades one through four with emphasis upon habitual accuracy in grades five and six. The sentence, with its principal permutations, is to be taught at all grades.

Efficacy of Grammar in Relation to Practice in the Use of Language. The long list of grammatical elements to be taught in grades three through six raises the question as to whether the teaching of grammar in the elementary school is the best approach to language facility and correctness for underprivileged children. It is curious that in four days of visiting elementary schools in the city, the observer never heard a child say more than one sentence, and that, in every case, was triggered by a teacher's question. Usually, it was a very short, simple sentence. In a demonstration lesson on how to build a paragraph, the teacher had children responding to each of his questions in one sentence. These were obviously good students in the sixth grade. They answered in complete sentences, a requirement in every classroom, but nobody engaged in consecutive thought or had occasion to develop an idea beyond the level of one sentence.

The introduction of technical grammar in the early years of the elementary school is most unusual. It has had no noticeable effect on the proficiency with language, perhaps because of the failure to practice what is taught in speech or writing.

Chart II of Direction Finders begins with a section on correct usage which gives an excellent, simple overview of the major language problems of disadvantaged children. It might well compose the entire corrective language program of the schools at least through the fourth grade. The attack is oral and the usage and sentence problems are fundamental. The program is uncluttered by a lot of grammatical generalizations.

The creative language section indicates the imaginative types of language experience with which children should have experience. They include story-telling of both original and retold stories, enrichment of vocabulary, appreciation and enjoyment of poetry, memorization choral speaking, dramatic play, dramatization, and puppetry. Use of recordings is emphasized also. There is some required memory work, including patriotic recitations.

The observer did not see any of the kind of experiences suggested on this chart going on in the schools visited.

The most successful work the observer saw in English in the schools was in vocabulary enrichment -- especially in the language arts program of the Model School Division. Vocabulary development through use of pictures of people engaged in different vocations and of the services each renders seemed to the observer to be the most effective experience with language offered in the Washington schools. If this program could be extended to include development of more than one-sentence responses, it would be doubly valuable.

The overwhelming impression of the observers of the elementary school language arts program was that the teachers seemed to have settled for the most superficial aspects of language arts -- those involving the recognition of words, but not their meanings; the elements of formal grammar, but not the composition of ideas. The distance between the intentions represented by the Direction Finders and the practice in the classrooms was so great as to leave the observers simply astonished. Especially striking was the absence of attention to speech.

Remedial Reading. In any school system with the student body like that in Washington, remedial reading services must of course occupy a large place. One observer devoted specific attention to the reading clinic.

There are two plans for classroom instruction of poor readers at the elementary level. Plan I provides extra time for reading instruction for a class of poor readers. Regular teachers with no special preparation in reading are assigned to these classes. Class size is thirty-plus. The observer visited a fourth grade class of this type in which the teacher was judged to be excellent and doing good work. A second grade Plan I class was depressing -- all but two children were still reading pre-primers. Plan II is similarly conceived, except that the "extra time" is an afternoon devoted to word games, film strips and so-called enrichment activities.

The reading clinic functions in its offices on the third floor of the John Eaton School and in the reading centers (usually one room) located in 92 elementary schools, 15 junior high schools, and all 13 high schools. Growth has been rapid from 34 elementary centers and 5 secondary centers in 1964-65. "Reading Center" is sometimes a more impressive name than the reality. In Scott Montgomery School, the reading center was one very small (nine by nine feet) cluttered room.

The supervising director of the reading clinic offered the following information for the school year 1965-66.

	Number of Pupils	Gains
Pupils receiving instruction	2,797	
Pupils diagnosed	2,191	
Pupils screened for improved class placement	10,419	
Teachers receiving in-service and staff-development training	2,695	
Pupil progress reading level gains	662	1/2 year
	927	1 year
	634	1-1/2 years
	356	2 years
	146	2-1/2 years
	53	3 years
	10	3-1/2 years
	8	4 years
	1	5 years

Although the reading specialists are supposed to have a masters degree with twelve semester hours in reading, five years of teaching experience, written and oral examinations, and an interview, the reality is that a substantial number of specialists are classified as "temporary" and do not meet these standards.

The services rendered by the remedial reading program as a whole are numerous. There are in-service workshops, demonstrations and work with teachers directly in a Reading Improvement Program (RIP); there are diagnostic reading testing programs; referrals are made by teachers or parents through the principal. Field diagnosis is done by the reading specialist in the child's school and remedial work is undertaken within the school by this specialist. The specialist may refer puzzling cases to the John Eaton Office of the reading clinic for a more detailed diagnosis. The testing at John Eaton includes appropriate oral and silent tests, an audiometer, and a telebinocular, all used for screening. Individual intelligence tests are given as needed.

Remedial reading instruction is offered in the school by reading specialists. As observed, the groups usually seem to consist of three children, selected according to age and need. Some children are seen individually, at least for a short period of time. Most of the children are above the third grade, but there is a move to begin earlier. The children work with their special teacher for about an hour, though sometimes for a shorter period, and they meet with their teacher twice a week. The observer noticed a variety of techniques and materials and was on the whole favorably impressed with them. The teacher in one case had a tape recorder and a record player, but said that she did not use them. She had been too busy to unpack some of the boxes of books that were in the room. The supervisor emphasized the importance of a very rich variety of printed materials, everything from a Sears catalog through Batman and cookbooks. The teachers in the schools meet approximately 30 children.

The observer recorded these impressions about the remedial reading program:

1. Staff morale in the central reading clinic seemed high.

2. The program is flexible and offers teachers considerable autonomy. As the director recognizes, some use this autonomy and others cannot.

3. The materials made available are varied and appropriate. Sometimes they are not well used, of course. Some attempts to provide materials were imaginative; for example, the paperback giveaway. The provision of materials is one of the greatest strains of the program, at least at the elementary level.

4. The overriding impression of the observer was "<u>too little</u>, <u>too late</u>, <u>too diffuse</u>."

a. The supervisor estimates that one-third of the children in school need special help in reading; the program reaches about five percent.

b. Time is wasted in transportation to the central clinic, and in having children come from one school to another for instruction. One group, due at one o'clock, did not arrive until one-thirty, after the teacher had had to telephone for them.

c. Third grade is too late. The specialists are helping teachers in the first and second grade, but it is not enough.

d. The program is based on a language-experience approach to remedial work. The staff does not seem particularly sophisticated concerning some of the newer thinking about specific language disabilities. They did not recognize the relevance of minimal neurological impairment to their work.

e. Grouping for instruction, as observed, was haphazard. Three children working together were quite different in skill, in the reading problems they had, and in personality.

f. Background information on the children is meager. Parents are rarely involved in the remedial work.

g. Continuity between remedial work and classroom work is very spotty.

h. The size of the classes from which the children are drawn -- 35+ in the elementary grades -- itself contributes to the need for remedial work.

It is recommended that either through more sophisticated diagnosis or a closer link with special education services, those children who have specific difficulties with perception, visual motor tasks, or with language in general, be identified and given appropriate instruction.

Language Arts in the Secondary Schools. The central English office is composed of a supervising director, two assistant supervisors, and five English specialists. This group generally supervises the work in English from grades seven to twelve. However, since D. C. is both a city and a state, the English central office often administers state funds and is in charge of K-12. Because of this dual responsibility, the duties of this staff often overlap with the elementary responsibilities; and interdepartmental tensions develop with no one quite sure where his responsibilities lie.

The English central office feels its hands are tied because of the authority of each principal in his school. A few secondary English teachers responding to a questionnaire also indicated that "the principal's word is law, but that he does not know the field of English." In the field of reading there is overlapping between the duties of the reading clinic and those of the English central office which involve differences in perceived prerogatives

As far as the supervision of speaking activities is concerned, there seems to be very little friction between the English office and the Bureau of Speech and Hearing. The reason for this may be that there is very little emphasis on natural oral work in the schools, even though the English office is aware of its importance. In the classrooms visited by the task force, emphasis was on quiet seatwork, with little or no oral activity.

The Speech Department, on the other hand, concerns itself mainly with corrective speech, not with normal speech activities. There is some attempt on the part of the Speech Department to give three lessons in developmental speaking activities to each second and third grade class, but this is scarcely enough. The Speech Department also has had a number of workshops for teachers. Speech improvement plays a secondary role to speech correction, which from an English teacher's point of view is unfortunate.

There appears to be no organized procedure by which teachers are informed of the new materials being used or of materials to be disseminated. In addition to the experiments, several projects designated as "research" are sponsored by the central office. These consist mainly of testing out new textbooks before their regular distribution.

Recommendations. Many of the high-ranking individuals in the central office are new to their jobs and somewhat inexperienced at the middle management level. At times it seems that they spend a great deal of effort in "show-case" activities designed to impress others. For example, their concept of "research" is limited to field testing; and the importance of evaluation of programs appears to be unconsidered. There is a tendency to grasp anything new without fully examining its implications; the central office is extremely proud of the fact that its biggest budget item for the past year was allocated for machines for the communications laboratories which, when observed, stood idle because they were incomplete, because software was unavailable, or because no one was qualified to operate the equipment.

It is recommended that subject matter specialists be assigned to oversee their fields in the elementary school. Since one of the District's main problems is teaching students to read, write and speak, the early school years ought to have the most qualified people in charge to work with classroom teachers.

The English questionnaire sample showed that 25 out of 94 English teachers in the

system majored in a subject other than English. The questionnaire also shows that of 94 teachers, 72 were visited at least once their first year of teaching, and 14 of those were visited as many as four times. The English office should have veto power over the assignment of teachers lacking substantial preparation in English.

It is recommended that teams of young, enthusiastic teachers should be placed under the direction of a capable experienced teacher whose teaching load would be reduced for team consultation. In-service training should be offered to the team leader.

The basic English curriculum is tentative, revised in 1960; it is the official syllabus for the D. C. secondary schools. It is, however, extremely general with few or no actual units worked out in detail with suggestions on how to teach specific material. For an inexperienced, perhaps poorly trained teacher, it offers very little help and few teachers or schools seem to follow it. Both observation and questionnaire responses suggest that either schools build their own curricula or teachers go their own way, often following a textbook.

In addition to the general 1960 curriculum prepared by representatives of both the supervisory and curriculum departments, there are other curricula circulating. For example, the observer was impressed with the Reading Comprehension Improvement Program developed by 11 tenth grade teachers at Ballou Senior High School. The program attempted to aid students with reading skills in all courses. It is recommended that strong teachers be used to advantage wherever they are found -- as consultants to other teachers; as demonstration teachers, as consultants to the Central Office. Offer extra pay for this service, but do not remove such teachers from all classroom teaching.

Curriculum revision is haphazard and unplanned. Groups appear here and there with small projects. Some of the projects are inconsistent in their goals. For example, Project 370 was begun by a group of interested administrators, not teachers, concentrating on the language arts and humanities. It now seems to have blossomed into a project to foster creativity, particularly in the gifted. As in many other language arts projects, each school in Project 370 seems to go its own way, stressing linguistics or some other area in which its teachers are interested. Project 370 was apparently developed without the central English office's knowledge and has led to some unnecessary tensions.

It is recommended that systematic curriculum development be guided by experts in language, literature, reading, writing, and psychology, with leadership and coordination coming from the central office. It is suggested that a standing committee on Reading and English be created to mount a sustained attack on the District's language problems. This group could function in sub-committees dealing with the various school levels and aspects of English. Acting as a whole, it could approve bulletins, evaluation devices and teaching materials; could recommend support for promising innovations and the termination and withdrawal of funds from demonstrations that had run their course.

It is distressing to find English teachers with master's degrees mispronouncing words, misexplaining workbook exercises on grammar, misdefining technical terms, and failing to catch consistent gross grammatical errors in oral speech. The observer could not escape the strong impression that a substantial portion of the English teachers were not themselves well enough educated in their own fields.

It is recommended that, in addition to in-service training of the present staff, professional aids in the teaching of writing and speech be brought into the school on a part-time basis. There are in the city of Washington and its suburbs many well-educated individuals who lack teaching certificates, some of whom could handle limited teaching assignments effectively. These persons might be thought of as teacher consultants. Varying patterns involving the employment of part-time outside specialists should be developed and tried.

Despite the provision of new funds for instructional materials, school libraries are poorly stocked and English departments are not uniformly well supplied. Too often the library is not open. In some schools, students are not allowed to take textbooks home. Textbooks are distributed at the beginning of the period and collected at the end.

The list of approved textbooks contains more anthologies, workbooks, and grammar texts than it does novels, plays and other works. The novels included are highly conventional, like Pride and Prejudice and Wuthering Heights. Notably missing are the contemporary novels, especially those that would strike the children as dealing with the life they know.

It is recommended that the schools be given more autonomy in the purchase of instructional materials. It would be desirable for the individual school to purchase a great variety of paperback books for use in class. Libraries need to be expanded and staffed so that they are open for students and so that their holdings are more adequate.

The most neglected area in the English curriculum is speech. In only three classes did the observer hear students discussing a piece of literature or each others' written work. Out of 85 filled positions, the speech center has only from four to ten people working in the field of speech improvement. These people concentrate their efforts on in-service courses in the speech arts for teachers, and in the second and third grade speech improvement program. This program does not affect the junior high schools directly, except as the staff requests demonstration lessons. Eighty-five of 125 English teachers have had some speech training.

While very few schools in the nation do much with the skills of listening, the only people in Washington who seem to be aware of the importance of learning to listen are the speech teachers who have little opportunity to work with English classes.

Only 45 out of 125 questionnaire respondents stated that they had received any training in the teaching of reading at the high school level. Most high school teachers, understandably, therefore rely on workbooks and textbook exercises. Teachers without training in reading do not have the means to understand the differences between the various kinds of reading difficulties the students have and tend to work with children on a monolithic basis. Consequently, the reading program at the secondary school level lacks structure and direction. There are no provisions for a developmental reading program for those students who cannot be classified as remedial. It is recommended that high school teachers be given training for implementing developmental reading programs.

The task force observers noted only one class devoted to discussion of materials written by students; no classes which took language and grammar lessons from errors which students themselves had made; much parroting of rules, a somewhat futile exercise; and stereotyped topics for themes.

In Summary. While a number of imaginative and well-conceived programs were found in some of the schools, there was little evidence that they were affecting the other schools, and less evidence that the District as organized makes use of the leadership it develops within its classrooms. While it is difficult to say that any particular aspect of the work is typical of the schools as a whole, the observers consistently emphasize the essentially formalistic approach to language arts at both the elementary and secondary levels.

In a school system in which the children do not learn to read well, as the test results indicate, phonics takes the place of a more contemporary view of the nature of

reading and of reading instruction. In a system in which many students speak a non-standard English, they are discouraged from speaking to one another, and most of the talking in the classes is done by the teachers. In a system in which many of the children come from poor families, the materials of instruction are relatively sparse, and seem to be closely guarded for fear they will be lost. In a system in which a large proportion of the children entering secondary school have only a minimal grasp of the language arts, the high school teachers do not understand the nature of elementary instruction. In a system characterized by a high rate of transfer of students and teachers from one school to another, the program as operated does not reflect a basic system-wide policy. The main problems of the English department at the secondary level were stated by the task force chairman as centering around "curriculum, lack of suitable materials, lack of communication, low morale, and poor teachers." That is, they center around everything.

E. Mathematics[1/]

Mathematics education in the District schools is not without strengths, the principal one being the supervisory staff. The task force was favorably impressed with their professional competence. The recent addition of elementary mathematics specialists to the supervisory staff is a positive move. A second strength is the recognition that a single mathematics curriculum cannot provide adequately for the mathematical needs and interests of all pupils. Although the task force could not endorse fully the selection procedures or content prescribed for certain mathematics curricula, the principle of differentiated mathematics programs is sound.

A third strength lies in some of the syllabi which provide an adequate range of both traditional and modern topics in a sequence and to an appropriate depth. While the existence of guides does not insure that programs comply with specifications, their availability is a potential asset. Finally, in many schools the task force found at least one teacher with special interest and, occasionally, special competence in mathematics. In large city schools there is often not a single teacher whose affinity for mathematics is sufficient to stimulate pupils or colleagues. These prospective resource teachers are a latent strength which could and should be developed.

Observed Weaknesses. A principal weakness observed by members of the task force was the relatively low mathematical competence of both the elementary and secondary teaching staffs. With the few exceptions noted above, teachers observed seemed either uncomfortable with the material they were teaching or oblivious to its nuances and implications. Mathematical errors or misconceptions occurred frequently. At the elementary school level, methodology was usually superior to lesson content.

These staff weaknesses observed by task force members were not reflected in the data on teacher experience and preparation. Analyses indicated that the mathematical preparation of elementary school teachers in sample schools was approximately at the national average - three hours. The mathematics preparation of junior high school teachers was somewhat above the expected average of 18 hours. The senior high school teachers exceeded the national average of approximately 30 hours. On the average, mathematics teachers in vocational schools were somewhat less well prepared than junior or senior high school mathematics staff.

The task force was unable to determine why classroom observations failed to validate these data. Several explanations are possible: some teachers may be graduates of schools with questionable mathematical reputations; small numbers of teachers participating in National Science Foundation and similar programs cast doubt upon the validity of preparation claims; long periods of teaching without graduate study can result in a decay or decline in the mathematical competence to the degree that the number of undergraduate hours of mathematics bears little relationship to the present state of a teacher's knowledge.

Multiple-textbook adoption, by individual schools, is not in itself a weakness. The practice is based on the assumption that schools and teachers are qualified to make valid pedagogical and mathematical judgments regarding specific texts. In view of faculty weaknesses in mathematics cited above, the practice of multiple adoption seems inappropriate for Washington schools, especially at the elementary school level.

The text selection problem in secondary schools may be only a special case of a fundamental weakness in the mathematical decision-process itself. At present, secondary school mathematics department chairmen appear to have little or no responsibility

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1/ Dr. Bruce R. Vogeli prepared the report on which this section is based.

or influence. Many appear to serve only as intermediaries between the principal and the mathematics teaching staff. Teaching assignments are made by the principal, often without consultation with the department chairman. The principal may, if he chooses, determine criteria for admission to specific mathematics courses without benefit of counsel. In general, the principal rather than the chairman is the chief mathematical officer of the school. Regardless of his mathematical interests or competence, curricular and staff decisions are in his hands. Given a strong mathematics staff capable of adapting instruction to offset an occasional administrative blunder, it is conceivable that a principal could serve satisfactorily (though briefly) as nominal "company commander." On the other hand, for an uncertain mathematics staff to be directed by an equally uncertain officer seems unwise.

Curricular provisions for pupils with commercial-vocational mathematical interests are weak. Despite the fact that substantial numbers of graduates seek and find employment in government agencies in and around Washington, mathematics curricula are comprised not of topics pertinent to modern data handling procedures but of review of rational arithmetic with modest applications to home and office situations. Indeed, despite the use of texts purporting to contain "applied mathematics" curricular provisions for pupils with commercial-vocational mathematical interests, these books seem to emphasize remedial arithmetic and to ignore completely the more significant and interesting modern applications of numerical mathematics.

Task force members observed pupils assigned to specific mathematics courses who seemed not to possess interests and/or abilities compatible with course content. In some cases assignment of pupils to basic mathematics classes appeared to have been made more on the basis of interest (or behavior) than for academic reasons. Likewise, some pupils were observed in advanced or honors classes who, by task force standards, were not classifiable as "honors pupils." Misassignments inevitably occur in any school situation; however, purposeful misassignments made by school officers as expedients can only serve to undermine differentiated curricular provisions and to lessen further the enthusiasm and effectiveness of an already uncertain teaching staff.

The task force observed that, at best, mathematics programs for both honors and remedial pupils seemed to serve little more purpose than the segregation of interest and ability groups. In general, "honors" programs in Washington schools consisted of special sections of algebra, geometry, and "advanced mathematics." Texts for honors classes differed only superficially from those used in regular programs. Although the pace was somewhat faster for "honors" groups, the approach and methodology employed were substantially the same as those used in other strata of the mathematics curriculum. If honors programs are to serve the needs of talented pupils, they must be more than warmed-over regular courses. Indeed, they should be creatively designed to exploit the special talents of both teacher and pupil and, hence, cannot and should not follow ready-made commercial patterns.

The same criticism can be directed to the "basic" mathematics program. The needs of these pupils are quite different from those of the "regular" pupil and, hence, warmed-over regular courses have little chance of succeeding. Basic mathematics programs are further handicapped because they are unattractive to capable mathematics teachers and thus fail to enlist the teaching talent necessary for implementation of innovative curricula.

The task force found that the majority of elementary officers and teachers interviewed relegated mathematical education to a position below instruction in reading and social studies. If carried into the classroom, somewhere this emphasis could retard mathematical development of generations of pupils. At the secondary school level mathe-

matics seemed to the task force to be inadequately advertised or emphasized. Few schools had active mathematics clubs. Many could not cite one graduate known to have pursued the study of mathematics in college.

The task force frequently observed crowded classroom conditions both in elementary and secondary mathematics. Continued organization of large mathematics classes conducted by inept teachers is a questionable policy. Although practical realities often dictate temporary measures recognized as educationally unsound, the task force doubts the wisdom of continually enlarging mathematics and other classes to accommodate additional pupils. The time will come (indeed, it may have arrived in some schools) when the quantity of mathematical information acquired by individual pupils is insufficient to warrant either the pupils' time or the Board's investment.

Recommendations and Suggestions for Implementation. The Mathematics task force recommends courses of action be taken which will supplement and extend present strengths observed within the Washington school mathematics program while at the same time eliminating or alleviating recognized weaknesses.

The task force recommends that an administrative reorganization be undertaken with the dual goals of elevating the status of mathematics within the total school program and placing responsibility for mathematics programs in the hands of mathematically competent supervisors. The task force believes that the supervisory staff is neither adequately recognized or fully exploited. Principals and other administrators seem to be more influential determinants of mathematical policy than supervisory staff. The strengthening of the Department of Mathematics' role is an essential first step in the improvement of mathematical education.

The task force recommends that curricular responsibility for the elementary school mathematics program be vested in the Mathematics Department. Although the Department of Elementary Education is capable of handling general elementary school problems, the need in mathematics is far too acute for overall prescriptions and solutions. The status which mathematics deserves within the elementary program can be achieved only by the substantial involvement of the Department of Mathematics in elementary school affairs.

The task force recommends that textbook selection in mathematics at both the elementary and secondary levels be supervised by the Department of Mathematics. The nuances of mathematical development and meaning can best be detected by trained individuals. At the elementary level text selection should be a joint responsibility of the Departments of Elementary Education and Mathematics with text committees comprised of representatives of both departments. At the secondary level the Department of Mathematics should continue to select texts unilaterally.

The Department of Mathematics should have some influence upon and control over teaching assignments in mathematics. The task force found occasional misassignment of qualified mathematics teachers to non-mathematical or quasi-mathematical duties, while inadequately prepared teachers were given responsibility for advanced or honors classes.

If the departmental chairman-resource teacher organization suggested below is implemented, the present supervisory staff is adequate to provide necessary services. Part-time supervisory activity can achieve the level of performance required. Further strengthening of the Department of Mathematics could be accomplished by a restructuring of the roles of junior and senior high school mathematics chairmen. The task force recommends that each school chairman be designated as the chief mathematical officer, responsible both to the principal and to the mathematics supervisor. His responsibility would include implementation of Mathematics Department policy in the school and service

as the mathematical agent and advisor of the principal. The building chairmen should be designated bilaterally by principals and the mathematics supervisor and provided with at least two free periods daily for coordinating departmental activities and for program planning. A moderate salary increment of from $300 to $500 per annum also is warranted.

Duties of school departmental chairmen should include: (1) providing supervision for and assistance to the mathematics teaching staff; (2) consulting with guidance counselors in the implementation of the pupil personnel policies of the Department of Mathematics (in particular, in enforcing standards of admission to and exclusion from various differentiated curricula in mathematics); (3) advising the principal on staff needs, policies, and assignments in mathematics, and (4) participating in regular chairmen's meetings called by the Department of Mathematics. Assumption of duties 1 and 2 would substantially relieve the burden presently borne by senior supervisors, thereby releasing them for broader program planning and coordinating activities.

At the elementary school level where departmental chairmen are not traditional, the task force recommends the appointment of one mathematics resource teacher per two or three buildings. Resource teachers should be selected jointly by the principal, the Department of Elementary Education and the Mathematics Department. Duties of resource teachers would include: assisting teachers in implementing mathematics programs recommended by the Department of Mathematics; conducting inservice sessions for new and experienced teachers, and demonstrating and supplementing teaching of mathematics classes within the schools. During the first years of the program, resource teachers might have no responsibilities other than the improvement of mathematics teaching within the buildings they serve.

On the basis of its survey of sample schools, the task force believes that an adequate number of teachers interested and capable in mathematics exists within the system to implement the proposed resource teacher program. All resource teachers should undergo a paid period of formal training of no less than eight weeks. This program should consist of course work in mathematics, survey and study of curricular development programs in mathematics at the elementary level and directed practice in demonstration and in-service teaching. The training course for resource teachers possibly could be supported by a United States Office of Education grant to the District Schools and to a cooperating institution of higher education.

The preparation of the teaching staff is a serious deterrent to the further development of mathematical education. A concerted effort to strengthen the staff is essential. Staff improvement can be brought about in three ways: (1) employment of highly qualified teaching staff, (2) pre-Washington service instruction of incoming elementary and secondary mathematics teachers, and (3) in-service instruction of teachers already employed. Because of the acute need for qualified mathematics teachers, the task force recommends that all three modes of staff development be undertaken concurrently. The task force urges that staff recruiting and employment practices be revised at once to permit interview, selection and employment of secondary school mathematics teachers prior to July 1 of any year. Furthermore, it is urged that the Board of Education provide staff inducements in the form of salary increments, released time provisions, assignment preferences, and opportunity for graduate study in order to attract to Washington a small but influential core of outstanding mathematics teachers. The mathematics supervisory staff should be encouraged to solicit through letter, advertisement, and personal contact at professional meetings applications from such teachers.

A fellowship program should be developed by means of which recent college graduates could obtain support for further study from the Board of Education by agreeing to join the mathematics faculty upon termination of a 12-month graduate study program. Sup-

port for graduate study could include partial payment of tuition and fees and a small personal stipend. The agreement should include a commitment by the novice teacher to remain in the District Schools as a teacher of mathematics for a period of at least three years upon completion of graduate study. This program could also be supported by a grant from the U. S. Office of Education or the National Science Foundations.

Because of the scarcity of elementary school mathematics specialists and the relatively low level of mathematical competence of graduates of colleges supplying the District schools, the task force recommends a broad pre-service program in mathematics for incoming teachers. It is recommended that elementary school teachers, and possibly junior high school teachers as well, be employed initially on a 12-month basis. Employment would begin in June preceding the September in which the teacher assumes classroom responsibilities for the first time. During the two or three months in which the novice teacher is employed by the District school system prior to the beginning of classes, he would be required to attend an eight to ten week graduate program with at least one course in the content and teaching of elementary school mathematics. The purposes of this pre-Washington service program would be: (1) to insure minimum academic confidence of in-coming teachers, and (2) to guarantee knowledge and understanding of the goals, processes, and problems of Washington public education. The courses should be conducted at the Federal City College with the Mathematics Department cooperating. Teachers should receive a reasonable salary for such preparation; tuition and fees should be paid by the Board of Education or by a grant from a Federal agency or foundation.

On this same basis, secondary school personnel should be employed initially for a 12-month period and required to enroll for at least two courses in mathematics and mathematics' teaching at an accredited graduate school.

Annual employment of novice teachers and mandatory participation in pre-Washington service training programs not only will improve their technical competence but also will enhance the appeal of Washington as a career base by elevating initial teaching salaries well above those of competitive cities and suburbs. Certainly, the availability of moral and monetary support for further professional training will improve the Washington image.

If a rapid change in staff qualifications is to be achieved, the preceding recommendations must be supplemented with an immediate and extensive program of in-service education. The task force recommends that the supervisory staff, in cooperation with an institution of higher education, offer regular in-service instruction in mathematics at the elementary, junior and senior high school level. Teachers presently in service who have not participated in an approved or accredited in-service program in mathematics in the past three year years should be required to complete the above program within a two-year period. In-service programs of this kind can be supported partially by an assistance grant from a Federal agency or foundation.

Recommendations for administrative reorganization and staff development can and should eventually result in the revision of existing curricular guides and syllabi. As staff strength increases and as the stature of the Department of Mathematics grows, curcicula more modern in content and broader in scope could be implemented.

One serious deficit in mathematics curricula is the lack of honest opportunities for mathematically talented pupils. Although the number of such pupils is relatively small at present, their importance to the Mathematics Department and to the community is sufficient to warrant extra attention. In many schools visited, small groups of pupils designated as honor students were enrolled in special sections where they re-

ceived a warmed-over version of regular courses. For many pupils observed, this kind of course work was quite appropriate since, by task force standards, they were not really classifiable as honor students. For others, honors work of this kind not only is inadequate but surely is misleading. Programs should offer work in computer and applied mathematics, statistics and probability, analytic geometry and calculus.

In addition to the relatively small segment of the Washington school population identified as mathematically talented, the task force is concerned also with provision of adequate opportunities for pupils of average mathematical ability. The District's present general and to a certain extent the regular mathematics curricula seem not to take into account the probable vocational goals of current pupils.

The regular curriculum, including as it does algebra and plane geometry, is moderately well suited for college entrance. The general course, with its emphasis upon applied mathematics, superficially appears to be vocationally oriented, but in fact dwells extensively upon remedial arithmetic. The task force believes that both programs are rather remote from the vocational needs of the pupils they serve since, for the present, most graduates of Washington general and regular programs find employment in government agencies or comparable commercial or industrial positions. The task force recommends that mathematics curricula for general pupils be designed which include significant emphasis upon modern methods of data collection and processing and instruction and experience in the use of mechancial and electronic calculating equipment. For regular pupils, the task force suggests supplementary instruction in numerical methods and the use of calculating aids.

The small program now in operation supplying schools with desk calculators on a rotating basis is promising. For the general student who has a history of difficulty with and dislike for arithmetic computation, the availability of a calculator for the solution of problems seems desirable. Indeed, if these students secure positions as clerks or stenographers in government service, it is probable that an ability to use calculating equipment effectively will be far more valuable than knowledge of arithmetic facts isolated from problem situations.

The same principle can be applied also to regular students. Algebra and plane geometry should be continued as appropriate courses for regular students but should be supplemented with mathematical activities which relate more directly to employment opportunities.

The task force recommends establishment of a computation laboratory in most junior and senior high schools. Each laboratory should be equipped with 15 to 20 manual or electric desk calculators with space and facilities adequate to provide simultaneous laboratory opportunities for one class of average size. Course guides and syllabi for the general and regular mathematics programs should be undertaken concurrently with establishment of laboratories. The general mathematics program should be revised to include substantial work in machine calculation techniques and problem solving. The general syllabus should include a minimum of three hours laboratory work weekly, supplemented by two to three hours classroom activity. Classroom activity should concentrate upon the rationale of algorithms and methods of solution of significant practical clerical, business, and technological problems. Laboratory periods should be devoted to solution of problems discussed in the classroom by means of algorithms and procedures introduced. The reduction in emphasis upon remedial mathematics implied by the laboratory program should have a positive effect both upon the morale of pupils and staff and upon the mathematical competence of general program students.

For the college preparatory sequence, the task force recommends a program which

would include, at most, two periods of laboratory work each week during the algebra program and one period a week during the geometry course. The algebra program itself could be altered to emphasize the role of approximation techniques and numerical methods in the solution of equations and systems of equations, in graphing, and in curve fitting. In the geometry program the laboratory periods should be devoted to solution of problems which involve geometric as well as numerical processes.

The task force recommends that a vocationally-oriented mathematics program rich in numerical methods and practical applications seems at present to be appropriate for the vast majority of Washington students and should be given careful consideration in the redesign of mathematical education in the District of Columbia.

The task force also recommends that instruction in numerical mathematics and electronic computer techniques be offered in secondary schools. While it is unnecessary that each school be provided with its own computer, it is recommended that time-shared terminals be leased by these schools for use by computer mathematics classes. Curricular materials for courses of the kind suggested are available at present; hence, these courses do not present the difficulties inherent in the computationally oriented courses.

The task force is concerned also with pupils identified as requiring specialized remedial instruction in mathematics. The Basic Track mathematics is insufficiently specialized and inadequately individualized for these pupils. As an alternative to basic mathematics, the task force recommends the establishment of mathematical clinics in elementary and junior high schools, accessible to pupils experiencing difficulty. The junior high school mathematics clinics could be combined with the computation laboratories. These clinics would function both during and after school hours and would attempt to provide individual diagnosis of and assistance with mathematical learning difficulties. Clinics could be staffed by student teachers under the supervision of a resource teacher. (A similar program in operation in Harlem is staffed entirely by Columbia graduate students.) Clinic referrals would be made by the teacher on the basis of observed mathematical disabilities and not for disciplinary reasons.

Equipment of clinics should include visual and tactile materials appropriate for mathematics tuition, desk calculators and other computational devices, and a supply of programmed self-study materials. In later years computer assisted instruction (CAI) terminals could replace most printed or taped materials in mathematics clinics. At present, such equipment is sufficiently developed for other limited experimental trial.

F. Science Education[1/]

Science in the Elementary Schools. The elementary science program suffers from serious communication failures, short-sighted planning and limited resources. Ultimately, adequate resources will be vital to the progress of the science program, however, what is presently available in the District schools for elementary science is only partially exploited. The communication problem is illustrated by the following comments obtained during interviews with various school personnel.

Science Supervisor: "One thing will cure our science problems in elementary school -- money. We cannot get enough to supply all the schools with what they need. The elementary principals could help but they do not want to spend money for science."

Elementary Principal: "Of course I would spend money for science if it ever got used."

Elementary Specialist: "I try to do what I can. But there isn't much to work with. I keep the trunk of my car full of all kinds of things, but it isn't enough."

Elementary Teacher: "I don't know much about science. But it seems like these kids ought to have something concrete to work with. It seems like we talk to them all the time.

Elementary Teacher: "The science specialist helped me fix up a bulletin board and then the elementary supervisor came in and criticized it."

Elementary Specialist: "I have been in the system a long time and I have learned if you want something you have to get it yourself. I find you can get principals to cooperate if you are diplomatic enough. And then I buy what I need out of my own pocket."

Elementary Principal: "Those science specialists are just elementary teachers but they want to have higher status, like a supervisor. But that would make teachers afraid to call on them for help. Now they know the specialist is just another teacher like them.

The task force observers found:

1. The equipment available in classrooms is in amounts too small to permit general student participation in experiments. However, there were boxes, trunks, closets, shelves that held considerable quantities of science materials and equipment which had never been used; in many cases, the materials had never been removed from the original cartons..

2. There is a great variation among the elementary specialists in the teaching skills, knowledge, and use of available materials. Some principals used the specialist as a supply teacher, others thought the specialist should be teaching teachers how to teach science. Specialists generally thought they would function more effectively if they could do some demonstration teaching but concentrate most of their efforts on helping teachers plan science lessons or by giving them in-service education.

1/ Dr. Mary Budd Rowe and members of the Department of Science Education staff prepared the report on which this section is based.

3. Much of the equipment which had been purchased in recent years was the kind a secondary science person might order for an elementary school.

4. Kenavision microprojectors of good quality and valuable for large group instruction are available in many schools but unused.

5. Some elementary teachers are able to teach science better than the elementary specialist. In some instances, the content, organization, and ability to motivate of the specialist compared unfavorably with the performance of the teacher.

6. Bulletin boards contained erroneous science information.

7. There are three different versions of the elementary science curriculum. The specialists and the supervisors from the Division of Elementary Education are not using the same guides.

8. In the Model School Division, the ESI Elementary Science Study seemed to be used effectively to provide sound science experiences, helping teachers understand and implement the program and making available necessary instructional resources.

It is obvious that communication between the various groups (science supervisors, specialists, principals, teachers, curriculum department members, and the elementary supervisors) is poor. The elementary science program, while well intended, is outdated, badly mounted and should not be revamped. A new program based on the recent profound changes in the science curriculum should be instituted.

The suggested changes in curriculum will produce changes in the patterns of materials purchased as well as in the more effective use of materials. Consultants with experience in working on one or more of the new elementary science curricula should be employed to help in the development of a new program.

There are certain science teachers with outstanding skills and the ability to communicate. It is recommended that these individuals should be given part-time and summer responsibilities to work on four aspects of the science program: (1) the provision of a list of equipment at each school along with some simple examples of the ways in which each item may be used; (2) the development of three or four classroom experiments per grade level (i.e., experiments to be performed by every child) that employ very simple objects which can be produced cheaply in classroom lots. For a $10.00 investment three classrooms of children would have about five to seven periods of science instruction. Inexpensive thermometers, for example, seem more useful instructionally than the two or three large expensive chemical thermometers found in the elementary science storage area; (3) teaching the new experiments to the elementary science specialists, who would thus teach teachers in the schools they serve; and (4) these teachers should eventually work with consultants employed by the District to develop and institute a new elementary science program modern in its conception and aimed at doing more than telling.

Junior High School Science. The physical facilities for teaching science at the junior high school level are deplorable. Laboratory facilities are ancient or absent in many cases and incorrectly scheduled even in those few instances where good facilities exist.

Following are selections from some observers reports:

.....The classroom (an eighth grade General class) had no science furniture,

not even a demonstration table. An odd assortment of physics equipment (most of it junk) was around the room. The teacher was explaining the principles involved in the telephone. He passed the parts of a telephone around the room. He lectured, and encouraged questions toward the end of the period. The teacher told the observer that he used a different text and more demonstration and discussion with the seventh and eighth Honors classes. He felt that the slowest track could get very little out of the science lessons. He did not express much concern over the impossibility of student activity or experimentation under the present plan of operation.

.....One teacher's preparation was in chemistry, and another's in the next classroom was in biology. The chemist was teaching the biology and the biologist could not teach the Honors course in biology because he was a provisional teacher.

.....One teacher arranged to have a man from the Parks Department come to the school to take the students on a tour of the school area to look for climax growth, etc. It is one of the rare instances observed where a field trip was planned.

.....Another head of a science department leads a very spirited band of teachers. He was teaching polar constellations to a small class of ninth grade girls. The class was very student-centered -- one of the few instances observed during the study. Even though the teacher took the observer to the storage area in the rear of his room and on a tour of the other classrooms, his class carried on with the lesson using an overhead projector and star maps. The equipment in the storage areas was antique: a multitude of dusty old jars containing chemicals, old battered anatomical models, odds and ends.

.....The teacher had a classroom which he had transformed into a science room. He formed the desks into work areas for four, home-made apparatus everywhere, cages, tanks and an obviously well used demonstration table. He pointed out a student project on bacteria in tap water; a little probing brought out the fact that he was using his own money for petri dishes, etc. He was upset that the class he had in the room had been pushed around from teacher to teacher and had finally been switched into science in the middle of the semester.

.....We saw some of the student notebooks and assignments; the quality of work was very poor. One teacher explained that many of the students cannot write their own names. The observer asked about a pile of textbooks in the storeroom and was told that this class of 24 boys had an average attendance of about seven. The teachers would rather keep the books in school in case the boys do come. One teacher said that some of the textbooks were so ancient that he had to tie them together with string; but this had the advantage of indicating whether the student ever used the book; he could tell by the knots in the string.

.....By way of contrast, another junior high school visited is rather modern and seemed to be in good shape. In this school, the top ability group takes the Biological Science Curriculum Study (BSCS, Yellow Version) biology, the second group takes an experimental course, "The Interaction of Matter and Energy," and the third and fourth ability groups take a standard biology course. All of the biology is taught by one teacher. She has the students working on a number of projects for the Science Fair. She seems to receive good cooperation

from the school administration since the top section has seven periods of science per week including a double lab period. The biology room is well equipped with plenty of work space and storage cabinets. The microscopes, glassware, reagents, etc., were obviously being used. There is a large storage room next to the teacher's room with larger biology equipment and two small telescopes.

.....The head of the science department was out ill. None of the science teachers had access to the main science storage room in the absence of this individual; the assistant principal had to summon the custodian for the key. The biology area is self-sufficient but the rest of the science department is apparently expected to carry on without any demonstration equipment until the return of the department head. No one seemed to find this distressing. The storeroom was interesting. There was a good card catalog of equipment on hand with cards for equipment which was obtained mainly between 1957 and 1962. Most of the equipment dates from this period and much of it has not been used in recent years. Six triple arm balances had not been used in a long while; a vacuum pump had no oil and no wear on the belt; flask heaters, glassware and tubing, electronic kits, etc., were deep in dust. The charge-out sheet had nine entries in the past year (four of them by one teacher).

There are some teachers who know how to teach science and how to use simple equipment and do so in very difficult physical settings, but many teachers do not know how to use such materials. The amount of unused equipment stored in those schools where working arrangements are satisfactory, suggests that teachers need education in the use of the materials (and how to teach science generally). There should be better liaison between the teachers and those who decide what will be purchased and excess materials in some schools should be moved to other sites where needed.

During the period while some schools are waiting to move into new buildings, the District is obliged to provide intermediate facilities for teaching science. Four thousand students will pass through science classes in one school between now and the projected move to a new facility in 1969. The District appears to have been "in transition" with respect to science for most of the century. Scheduling non-science classes in science facilities should be stopped.

The idea that basic or low ability students should not have laboratory is unsupportable. If anything, these are the groups that need to have a nearly continuous laboratory program which emphasizes learning by doing (instead of just learning by watching or listening).

Resources for Earth Science. In addition to the observation and analysis of the Science Program in the schools, the task force examined the possibility of making greater use of the resources of the city of Washington. They offer two illustrations: (1) Some efforts have been made to contact resource people and laboratories by means of liaison with the Science Advisory Panel for the Washington school system. Earth Science resources of the area were studied to determine whether materials for loan, visual aids and displays, speakers from governmental labs, etc., could be increased if a ninth grade Earth Science course were to be substituted for General Science now taught in the schools, or if it were decided to form an Earth Science Resource and Teaching Center that would function in a manner similar to the planetarium. It was decided that the subject of Oceanography within the Earth Science or General Science curriculum could best serve as a model resource study leading to future action by Washington, D. C. school personnel under minimal consultative leadership.

(2) Correspondence with the Environmental Science Services Administration resulted in an expression of willingness to cooperate and a list of directors of line components with the ESSA, such as the Coast and Geodetic Survey. U. S. Navy Oceanographic Office personnel are considering joint participation in a pilot project in oceanographic education for the District schools. The Oceanographic Office would deposit suitable films with the District's Audio-Visual Department for use with existing classes interested in aspects of oceanography such as marine biology, ocean physics and chemistry, topography of ocean basins, etc. It would loan oceanographic instruments and existing visual aids and displays to the schools; designate speakers for special topics; consider a "trailerized" teaching laboratory that would include pilot designs of teaching aids and half-scale models of ocean research submersibles such as Alvin and Trieste; explore a plan to refurbish and revitalize the Navy Museum in the Washington Navy Yard in the hope of making it an educational attraction for school classes, as well as other visitors to the Washington area. In addition, the office would publicize visits of ocean research vessels to Washington Navy Yard and formulate a program for school group visits, supply charts, maps, pamphlets as available for teacher and student use and conduct group seminars at a Navy location to upgrade knowledge of ocean science among Washington school teachers.

Using such approaches, it should be possible for Washington school representatives to strengthen resources available for all appropriate science and social studies programs. However, unless an energetic person or group of persons is hired with skills for affecting workable liaison with governmental agencies and within the school system with science coordinators, it is likely that such governmental cooperation as has been elicited to date as a result of this survey will be short-lived and ineffective.

The Joint Board on Science Education. The board for the Greater Washington area is already a well-developed community resource with a vast collection of manpower from its scientists and engineers who are potentially available to the schools. Extension of its work is recommended. One way of making such work more curriculum-oriented (and more useful to the classroom teacher) is a follow-up "kit" of some kind. Perhaps teaching modules consisting of photos, filmstrips, informative brochures, wall charts, reference photos, could be developed. These would enable the classroom teacher to understand in greater depth the concepts presented. It would assist in follow-up and evaluative studies with students.

It is recommended that a study of the entire Washington area be undertaken beginning with an assessment of the effectiveness of the present program in order to extend its usefulness to the classroom teacher.

A joint planning group of school personnel and consultants could work with various agencies such as the Bureau of Commercial Fisheries, to explore ways of developing science materials (or whole courses) that would orient certain groups of students to careers at a technical level, such as fish biologists or commercial fishermen. Similar joint planning in hospital technology could be developed and training programs made more generally available in the high schools.

Life Sciences, High School. Laboratory space and equipment in the high schools observed were adequate. Basic tools such as microscopes, display cases, dissecting materials and biological specimens were sufficient and readily available. In most cases equipment was modern or adapted to satisfy modern laboratory teaching techniques. However, time schedules for laboratory periods were not conducive to modern teaching which is oriented toward longer periods devoted to the examination of a single topic in depth. In most cases teachers complained about the science periods being truncated to include only one instructional period. This time block was insufficient to intro-

duce a laboratory problem and allow enough time for students to engage in activities to solve problems. This time restriction also influenced other patterns of teacher-pupil interaction. While three tracks were found in operation, it was very difficult to determine whether or not students abilities and ambitions actually varied from track to track. The general discussion among science faculty members centered on college admission.

Teacher complaints included insufficient time to use the equipment adequately. This became particularly acute when Honors classes were in session. Much of the work in these labs was done after school hours on the teacher's own time. The lack of readily available funds for small day-to-day items needed in laboratory lessons inhibited creative teaching. The teachers reported that they were required to pay for such items and then request compensation from a petty cash reserve. In some cases greenhouses were available, but the lack of organization and maintenance of the plant specimens was obvious. Furthermore, facilities for experimental ecological studies on groups of plants were not available.

Attempts were being made in some schools to incorporate laboratory sessions from the new biology curricula. Yet, traditional teaching techniques were being superimposed on modern science concepts, producing a bewildering learning environment for the pupil. Audio-visual aids, such as overhead projectors and charts, were being used. However, teachers would benefit from training in the proper use of overhead projectors in maintaining good optical alignment of the image.

The poor scheduling of classrooms presents unnecessary instructional problems. In come cases, biology classes were scheduled in non-biology rooms, while non-biology classes were scheduled in biology rooms. This situation was found frequently enough to make it seem to be a serious problem for instruction. While facilities designed for instruction were generally adequate, science classes were being taught in at least one cafeteria where the teacher could do little more than talk and perform limited science demonstrations, since cooking and serving went on simultaneously at the other end of the room.

In the main, the teachers lecture and the students listen. There was minimal pupil-teacher or pupil-pupil interaction. The students were slow to respond when the observer asked questions during a laboratory session. Generally, the main emphasis was on the acquisition of specific facts, simple drawing of observed material. This seemed to be correlated with the restricted time available for lab work. The teacher, sensing the press to communicate much information and to observe as many samples as possible, reacted by using the simplest teaching techniques -- look, draw and label.

One observer reported:

> In one classroom students were given the task of observing blood cells with the microscope. They were told only to look at as many cells as possible, identify leuckocytes and erythrocytes and to make drawings. The teacher retired to her desk. The observer moved around the lab asking questions with the intent of helping the students correlate observations with dynamic functional roles performed by these cells -- to elicit responses regarding trends, sequences and processes in biological events. The students were hesitant at first but soon showed a capacity to think abstractly with some assistance. In some cases, the pupils were ignorant of basic principles necessary in interpreting images produced by the microscope, e.g., relation of thickness to light intensity.
>
> The Honors classes have a much higher capacity for abstract thinking than others.

The observer was asked to describe research underway in the Columbia laboratories where he is working. Students made astute observations about experimental design and proposed plausible scientific explanations for phenomena observed in the laboratory. Once again a certain amount of question structuring was necessary to produce these responses. There is great potential here for further developments in Honors programs. Local consultants in science laboratories located around the city could be used more liberally with these classes.

In most cases, the teachers observed were adequately to marginally prepared in science content. Generally the level of preparation is at least comparable to teacher preparation the observers have seen in other U. S. high schools. In many cases, the teachers suffered from lack of effective techniques for communicating this body of knowledge and skills to students who appear poorly motivated and are not fully developed in cognitive skills. There appeared to be much hostility among the teachers about the abrupt and sporadic attempts of specialists to advise them on teaching techniques.

In each of the schools visited, school personnel gave a great deal of attention to college-bound students. Discussion with guidance people and with teachers appeared to focus on this as the primary object of education in the sciences. However, in many cases, students were carrying on activities in class which they did not understand and for which they could see no reason. Students were being led to believe that they were receiving high quality preparation for college. On the basis of papers the observers collected as a work sample, they doubted that the preparation now being given under the college-bound guise is adequate.

One teacher, whose assignment included the Advanced Biology class as well as four BSCS classes, also sponsors the Biology Club. Members also belong to the Washington Junior Academy of Science and participate in their Christmas conference as well as the Science Fair. The advanced Biology class meets seven periods a week by coming in at 8 a.m. on Thursday and Friday. At one point, they were working on the dissection of the fetal pig, but there was no money in the school budget for supplies for this class. The Urban Service Corps had supplied the materials one year and there was uncertainty as to whether they would do so this year. This teacher's prescription for improving the quality of science teaching at this school with many children coming from disadvantaged homes was to schedule seven periods a week plus two Saturday mornings a month for field trips and project work.

In general, libraries had small science collections, and the range of difficulty was narrow. In some cases, the only books available were college or trade level materials, and in other cases only juvenile books, not at the maturity level of high school students, were available.

The District needs the assistance of outside consultants to enlarge the collection of library books and periodical materials both in the classroom and in the library. The great range of student motivation suggests that science classrooms should have supplementary reading materials to be used in place of textbooks as a standard part of classroom equipment. However, such supplementary materials presuppose that teachers know how to use them, and are disposed to do so.

On view in many classes were a number of standard models, such as the human torso, the dissected frog and the mitosis series. There were many aquaria, terraria and even a very expensive germinating table that were not being used. In a storeroom, in one school, there were two new overhead projectors, but the teacher said they were seldom used. One teacher showed the observer a few commercial chemistry transparencies, but

said he did not know whether anyone had the skills to make their own or even whether there were any supplies for making them.

It is recommended that an intensive, sustained program of teacher in-service training be undertaken by a group of consultants who know science and can teach the skills of developing cognitive abilities. Teacher loads should be reduced so that teachers can participate in seminars, plan courses more effectively and promote intra-faculty teaching observation. The consultants should be allowed to teach classes jointly with the teacher as a means of demonstrating methodology.

Time for laboratory classes should be increased, at least two periods per week. The pupil-teacher ratio should be lowered to facilitate greater teacher-pupil interaction and teachers provided training in methods which use such interaction. The present approach of "say and listen" is inappropriate. New junior high school science programs have been produced by national science and university groups. These should be adapted and tested with the District's population. A major effort should be made to demonstrate to the teachers that the students have the potential to develop. The many constraining factors mentioned above have produced negative attitudes among the teachers about the possible growth of the pupils. Teachers need specific aid in strategies for moving students from concrete operations to more abstract conceptual levels. In working toward conceptual development, teachers should be helped with techniques of instruction which are appropriate with youngsters who are poor in verbal skills, especially with reading. Science is particularly promising in providing a variety of non-print resources as a base for improving ability to handle print materials. Finally, a great deal of equipment appears to have been ordered without consulting the people who were to use it. Much equipment appears to have been ordered by someone outside the schools. It is, in consequence, unused. This practice should be replaced by supervisor-teacher planning conferences, based on which equipment would be ordered. Finally, far greater use should be made of the District's resources -- people and places.

Physical Sciences in the High School. The task force is severely critical of the quality of physical science teaching. In few instances was it possible to judge a teacher's performance as adequate, much less exciting. Most teachers seemed oblivious to the problems of communication; teachers were observed who accepted incorrect answers without comment or who would correct errors with no word of explanation. In interviews, teachers tended to blame the students; students in the school were "poorly motivated" or "didn't care." At the end of one lab-class in which students were studying chemical change, the observer found that half of the class was unable to identify the metal zinc even though each individual had handled it and had written appropriate chemical reaction statements during the lab period. The teacher was unaware of this problem.

Although most teachers of physical science were introduced by their administrators as being fairly well to well qualified, observers found few teachers who seemed to have an adequate grasp of the content of physics and/or chemistry. These teachers could benefit from in-service aid both in content and pedagogy. There seems to exist no regular supervisory assistance.

Although there is a need for greatly expanded facilities for science and for a more generous operating budget, it appeared that existing facilities are not always used efficiently. At one high school a newly renovated physics room seemed almost totally unused. In another school, an overflow from a crowded junior high had been moved into a biology lab. The result was a physical science class in a biology lab, a chemistry class in a lecture room and a biology class in the physical science lab. This is hardly making efficient use of specialized facilities.

Most of the science teachers felt that there was little wrong with the tracking system. The two lower tracks seemed to exist only in name with no attempt made to differentiate these two groups. Except for timetable and text materials, there seemed to be little operational difference in the teaching of upper and lower groups. Teachers treated material expositionally in all groups, the only difference being the materials used.

It is recommended that the subject matter skills of teachers of physical science be updated. The knowledge of many who are teaching physical science requires considerable modernizing. There exist in the system some individuals with unusual teaching competence as well as an adequate grasp of the content. Arrangements should be made for these teachers to participate in a District program for improving the content and skills of science teachers generally. With the assistance of outside consultants who are aware of the instructional problems, these expert teachers could help upgrade the quality of teaching. The misuse or mis-scheduling of specialized facilities should be stopped immediately. Although facilities are limited in some instances, most remedial attention should be devoted to developing competence in teaching and improving the communication of new skills.

A Plan for Changing the Science Program. General recommendations for the elementary, junior and senior high schools have already been offered. The following outline suggests a plan for producing the changes:

Phase I -- approximately three weeks:

Elementary Specialists: Develop small handbooks for equipment and its use. Work out a program to demonstrate the materials for teachers.

Junior High Chairmen: Develop a set of simple laboratory exercises (four or five). Examine the equipment resources and produce a schedule that will move materials from school to school.

Vocational and Senior High Chairmen: Visit all science facilities in the District to get a sense of the state of physical resources for teaching science. Develop a program for upgrading of equipment and materials. Examine policies for teaching assignments, especially of new teachers.

Supervisor's Staff: Each member serves as liaison and facilitator to one of the above groups (suggest two staff members be assigned to each group).

Phase II -- academic year:

Elementary Specialists: Certain members of this group conduct three or four workshops for the group aimed at increasing knowledge of how to teach science to children and how to teach it to teachers. Develop library lists and AV materials.

Junior High Chairmen: Try out the simple lab experiments developed in the summer and modify them. Teach other members of the department to use the experiments. Examine, as a group, policies for teaching assignments, especially for new teachers. Develop library lists and AV materials.

Vocational High Chairmen: Work with vocational counselors to get lists and job descriptions of technical and semi-technical jobs and training requirements.

Senior High Chairmen: Get lists of workshops open to secondary science teachers and encourage participation.

Supervisor's Staff: Liaison and facilitator for the groups. Improve the relationship with the elementary supervisory staff and with the department of curriculum.

Phase III -- summer program of three weeks:

Elementary Specialists: Begin work on a new elementary science program, probably partly composed of new curricula being tried out around the country.

Junior High Chairmen: Begin work on new junior high science programs, probably composed of new curricula presently being developed for junior high.

Vocational Chairmen: Begin work with new science programs, more closely geared to the requirements of the population served.

Senior High Chairmen: Assess the extra-science resources around the city and develop specific plans for thier use both by high and junior high school groups.

Supervisor's Staff: Provide samples of all the major curriculum innovations in the country to the above groups.

Phase IV -- second academic year:

Elementary Specialists: Begin a series of in-service programs for grade level chairmen and at least one other teacher from each grade level.

Junior High Chairmen: Begin a series of in-service programs to introduce the new junior high programs as they develop.

Senior High Chairmen: Organize (with the help of outside consultants) a series of four workshops in each subject specially designed to teach teachers how to develop certain kinds of thinking in their students.

Supervisor's Staff: Set up plans along with the groups being advised for the use of extra resources. Begin an active program of site visits to support the changes instituted by the various groups. Meet the principals to explain the changes in the program and to seek their ideas.

Phase V -- summer program:

All Groups: Continue work started during past summer. Assess improvement in communications, availability of physical resources, and changes in general knowledge of science and how to teach it.

Phase VI -- third academic year:

All Groups: Essentially the same plan as followed in prior academic year. Extend the workshops to more members of the teaching community.

Junior and Senior High Chairmen: Work with supervisor's staff to plan the purchasing needed for new programs and/or the re-deployment of equipment and materials already owned by the District.

Vocational High Chairmen: Meet with groups especially concerned with the acquisition and training of semi-technical and technical personnel to determine how compatible programs are, where students can get training, summer employment for certain students.

Of course, no plan has any merit if the persons who are to participate in it cannot work together. It was the task force's impression that, while many of the individuals encountered in the District schools had valuable skills to contribute, certain factors seemed to condemn any program for change at its very beginning. Many such individuals have been in the school system for a long time, have tried to cope with nearly impossible situations and have given up in some degree, but not without bitterness. Bad feelings among teachers, between teachers and supervisors, and between head of departments and divisions are common. It may be that the basic requirements of good will and enough stamina to overcome past bad experiences cannot be met by the staff. The task force assumes they can and that the staff can produce the kind of science instruction needed in Washington.

G. Social Studies[1/]

Four assumptions have conditioned this task force's effort to analyze the social studies in Washington and to make recommendations for the improvement of that curricular area. First, Washington maintains a remarkably typical large-city public school system, at least as far as the social studies are concerned. The surface problems and strengths are remarkably similar to those in Chicago, Detroit, Philadelphia, and New York. The teachers say essentially the same things about children, content, resources, and administrators. The supervisors and administration make the customary complaints about teachers and instruction. The curriculum guides are nearly identical with those of the average large city -- perhaps less complete or detailed than some, but recommending approximately the same content and methods. Instructional resources are primitive, but normally so.

Second, the primary need of the school system is not to be advised of the directions which its educational program should be taking, but rather what it can do to improve its capacity to determine and attain its direction. Every social institution that wishes to remain viable needs to seek ways for regenerating itself. The particular pressures on the urban school system render the development of regenerative capacity especially important as well as difficult to attain. The teacher supply problem accentuates this, for the school system must serve as a training ground for new personnel, for the vast quantities of unlicensed personnel it must employ, and for the career personnel who must take an active part in the creation of a truly modern educational system.

A third assumption is that the really vital education is not monolithic but diverse. The truly relevant social studies arises from the unique collaboration of teacher, student, and subject matter. Hence, while there may be many common elements among the programs of the schools within one district, a system with vitality will encourage and nurture the strengths of each school and each place where teachers encounter children. The good social studies program in Washington will take many different forms as each teacher struggles to be relevant to an emerging world and each student seeks to find himself. The uncertain state of the social studies throughout the nation actually should encourage diversity as direction is sought.

The fourth assumption is that compensatory education for disadvantaged learners will only be achieved if the programs depart radically from the norm and are aimed directly at the causes of disadvantage. There is a tendency in some quarters to view compensation as a more rigorous form of "what everyone else gets" and many persons fear that if the disadvantaged are not taught "middle-class skills and information" they will remain disadvantaged. The assumption here is that one of the very reasons the school is so inadequate for the disadvantaged is that it has, indeed, been aiming essentially the "same stuff" at them.

Social Science Education. One potential goal of the social studies is the communication of the major ideas and ways of thinking of the social scientists, including the historian's view of the culture and its development. The task force found that, with the exception of a very small percentage of the classrooms, notably in some academic high schools and the Model School Division, the District does not have the capacity to achieve this goal at present. No conclusion of this report rests on more solid evidence than this one.

1/ Dr. Bruce R. Joyce prepared the report on which the material in this section is based.

1. The libraries and other instructional materials are clearly inadequate for this program. There are no supplies of original sources in history and very few relating to this or other contemporary cultures.

2. Both supervisors and teachers appear to agree that very few of the teachers are adequately prepared in the social sciences.

3. A significant number of classrooms in secondary schools are staffed by persons not licensed for teaching social studies nor even employed for that purpose.

4. The curriculum guides do not reflect a solid conceptualization of the social sciences.

5. The instruction observed with few exceptions revealed no conscious application of the social sciences.

6. The teachers who returned questionnaires did not describe their instruction in terms of the social sciences. (For instance, over 90 percent of the teachers either left the question blank or responded, "I don't understand the question," when asked: "In what ways do you utilize the concepts and modes of inquiry of the social sciences in your teaching?")

7. The District has not employed consultants in the social sciences to assist the supervisory staff in the creation of a more vigorous social science education.

A major effort would be needed to improve this situation, since so many factors are involved. The majority of teachers are unskilled in expository instruction, let alone the far more difficult inductive methods. As a group, most teachers would have great difficulty carrying on any kind of dialogue about the social sciences. To make the social sciences a major source of content and teaching strategy would require a transformation of massive proportions.

Social Education. Social education has two functions: preparing students to comprehend their society and become involved in it; and increasing the interpersonal capacity of the student. There are many possible approaches to social education, ranging from intellective approaches (usually built around the study of history and the mechanisms of democracy) to the study of contemporary social problems, through programs of social action. The social system of the school has an important place in social issues and provides an opportunity for students to learn from participation in shaping their social world.

A systematic effort at interpersonal education is notable in Washington chiefly for its absence. In only the exceptional situation is the student given responsibility for the direction of his affairs. The course of events is largely prescribed for him and most of the functionaries of the school agree with the student's present role in decision making.

With respect to the relevance of social studies to the needs and problems of the times and the emerging character of the world, the evidence seems mixed. The curriculum guides are badly out of date and hence do not reflect the contemporary world as they might. In most classrooms, instruction seems to follow a textbook approach with dependence on material, therefore, that is notably oriented toward the past and a static conception of the world.

Some teachers do build their programs around contemporary issues, at least partially.

This is especially true with respect to the Model School Division, where the materials that have been developed by some of the interns and teachers deal with contemporary social problems. The task force found that some teachers and administrators in the District apparently do not approve of these efforts to study the harsher issues and problems of the contemporary society. There is even controversy in the District staff over the attempt to supply paperback books which are "realistic" in their depictions of life. Some feel that the books should be subjected to a censoring procedure, whereas others feel that the important thing is to engage the children in the exploration of many points of view, including socially unacceptable ones.

Teachers in the District do feel that they have reasonable academic freedom, especially with regard to the treatment of controversial issues in the classroom. Nearly all teachers responded in the affirmative and provided examples to the questions, "Do you feel comfortable dealing with controversial issues in the classroom? Can you mention some that you have discussed with your students during the past year?" The supervisors agree that freedom is the usual situation, and the observers saw teachers conducting some rather lively discussions with their students. Not all teachers feel free, of course, and the administrators and teachers from some schools evidently put pressure on some of their colleagues to avoid treatment of controversy.

The teachers seem divided in thieir opinion about the relevance of the social studies to the social conditions of the times. In response to a question about this, about 60 percent of the teachers stated that they did not believe that the program had adequate relevance. Many of those who thought the program was not relevant elaborated their responses:

> The program and most of the teachers do not direct the students toward questioning and critically evaluating their society. Our community is an unlimited laboratory for social studies, though we have not even begun to use it. The teachers have not been expected or encouraged to become knowledgeable about this laboratory.

> No! Very little emphasis is placed on problems in our democracy. Consumer education is also neglected. And the geography of the world is almost totally neglected in the high school. The students don't know a thing about the regions of the world in which major events are occurring.

Although the teacher sample was small, there were many complaints about the inner-city programs. Generally, the social studies program is not differentiated through the city to the extent that the variations in pupil populations require it be. One teacher commented that he felt that the social studies program has adequate relevance, then added: "My students are aware and interested in current social problems - especially in the higher tracks. The lower tracks seem to be unaware of their role in society."

Most of the teachers and administrators seem to believe that the existing course of study and textbooks can be "made relevant" to the children and the times. Only rarely was it suggested that one might build a social studies program so that it would <u>have</u> relevance, rather than having to be <u>made</u> relevant.

The student questionnaire provided mixed evidence on the relevance of the program to the society. Certainly many of the student respondents were able to say something about the contemporary issues that were posed in the questionnaire. They could mention

problems facing big cities, the nation, and individuals in society. As far as involvement with social problems goes, there is something to start with, with nearly all of these students. Whether it is living in Washington, or the ferment of the times, or the curriculum, many of the children have a start toward involvement in social problems that could be capitalized on.

Providing for Individual Differences. There are many ways of developing social studies programs to capitalize on individual differences. The individual can be aided to develop his interests, to pursue personal inquiries that interest him. Instruction can be adjusted to his pace of learning. Except for the track system, little is done about individual differences in the schools. Self-instructional materials that permit pacing according to different learning rates apparently do not exist in the District. The libraries are not accessible for individual inquiry on anything like the scale that they should. The textbooks dominate instruction.

There are exceptions, of course. Here and there is an outstanding teacher who somehow is able to manage children superbly and who can create materials for them. In general, however, staffing practices militate against the individualization of instruction. Secondary teachers have four or five classes for short periods daily. The sheer number of students prevents much individual attention. If a teacher has 150 students and spends five minutes per week with each individual, he would use over half of his total instructional time for all students.

The self-contained classroom teacher is in no better shape. He has too many things to teach and very few back-up services. The track system itself is a recognition of the impossibility of taking care of individuals under the present working conditions, because the tracking groups individuals so that they can be treated as if they were relatively similar. In nearly all respects other than the basis for grouping, pupils are no doubt normally different.

There are many pressures for standardization in the curriculum that would seem to mitigate against service for the individual. Many administrators and teachers seem to believe that the curriculum should be basically the same for all rather than built around personal inquiry. As indicated earlier, they genuinely believe that people who are not exposed to the standard fare become disadvantaged as a result.

Materials of Instruction. Self-instructional materials are lacking. The District has not concentrated on the development of materials that children can use to teach themselves, such as self-instructional packets, programmed materials, cartridge film projectors, and the like. Even library books are in short supply, when one considers the needs and what is available.

Film ordering is onerous and slow. Projectors and other audio-visual equipment are strictly limited in quantity and many of the teachers do not know how to use them. Original sources of information are sorely lacking at all levels. Materials that the educationally disadvantaged can use are in exceedingly short supply, although efforts are being made in this direction.

The textbook dominates as an instructional material. On the questionnaire, 95 respondents said they use the textbook "much," 33 said "some" and only one teacher responded "not at all." Considering the fact that a great many of the children in the District have difficulty reading the textbooks used, concentration on its use as the major material has to be seriously questioned.

Of the respondents, 6 said they use the library as a resource "some" while 63 said

"much." Observers felt that library use is not as common as that at the "much" level. Few classrooms were arranged for project work of any kind and really extensive use would be difficult.

The style of the classroom reinforces this picture of the material. One hundred and two teachers said they use a textbook approach while 69 claim a unit-project approach or an inductive social science approach. The observers felt that the textbook is even more dominant than this would suggest. However, at all grade levels there are teachers who comfortably teach the social sciences inductively and who are able to carry off project-centered teaching with skill. This is an important human resource in Washington and needs to be used wisely.

Obstacles and Advantages: the View of the Teacher. It is difficult for a teacher to "leave" his classroom responsibilities and address himself to the problems of the District as a whole. Teachers generally react to educational innovations with a "How will it help me in my classroom?" attitude. Their working conditions, status within the system, and their training all reinforce this point of view. It is normal for teachers to feel powerless to do anything about the larger arena, and their feeling has much basis in fact.

The task force was favorably impressed by the number of teachers who clearly were hoping for an opportunity to say something about conditions in the District and what should be done about them. About 15 percent of the teachers responding to the questionnaire not only answered the questions but appended essays on the state of the schools. Most of these respondents tried to be constructive. Many discussed the lack of availability of materials. Others discussed the need for continual materials and curriculum development.

In the schools in depressed areas, discipline is, not surprisingly, a problem. The import of the teachers' views is that the schools are not sufficiently cohesive. Each teacher is more or less on his own with respect to discipline, although in crisis he can get help from the administration. There does not seem to be much effort to develop a rich school-wide social climate that gets teachers and children working together to build a good school society.

One teacher responded that a disruptive pupil should be removed from the class. "However, this procedure is not acceptable to the school administration. There is no other place for the disruptive child." Washington is not the only school district that has only makeshift procedures for dealing with disruptive behavior. Essentially, schools are staffed to carry on instruction and when the student does not respond to instruction, there is no well-thought-out positive course of action. As carried on now, special classes and the like simply move the problem to another place. The consequence is a loss of respect for the administrator, since teachers tend to feel that the operation of the school is his business and where there is a situation that they cannot handle alone, they expect forceful leadership from him.

One teacher's essay more or less embodies all the complaints that were listed. While in length and breadth this is by no means a typical response, the note of anguish repeated itself throughout the questionnaires.

> Since I have never worked in another school system I cannot make comparisons, but then I do not feel that comparisons are valid since each school system has its own unique problems and circumstances. Generally speaking teaching conditions in each subject area varies from school to school; however, experience in three different district schools as well as many acquaintances

in scores of other schools indicates that the overall policies of the Board of Education and the policies and attitudes of the Franklin Administration as well as some of the practices of the local school administration make for very undesirable working conditions and have the overall effect of undermining much of the constructive education work that is being carried on by some very competent and conscientious teachers.

The Washington, D. C. schools have inherited all the evils of a segregated society without having the benefit of the many strengths that can be developed through a well integrated society. Among the older white and Negro teachers there is still a great amount of race prejudice. It is not strong enough to be obvious, but periodically it flares up. Currently there is an in-service program being developed that is designed to help mitigate this, but it has been a long time coming. Furthermore there is considerable discrimination according to social class regardless of the racial distinctions. This is quite obvious and easily observable. Principals and counselors habitually refuse to give courteous treatment or any type of aid to students who do not conform to the value system of the school. There is little room for the individual who cannot successfully adjust, there is no time and there is little if any understanding or even attempts to understand the problems of our socially alienated youth. They are publically and privately berated, called names and publically humiliated in many ways. I recall an experience in junior high school where the assistant principal compelled a young girl to stand in the middle of the school cafeteria with a sign hanging around her neck which read in large print "I have disgraced my home and my school." I found out later that the child had forged a note from home explaining her absence from school.

These same types of social and psychological discriminatory practices are prevalent among the teaching staff. Teachers do not want to work with slow learners, it is considered a status symbol to have the brighter students. Both fellow teachers and administrators rate your competence low if you are given this type of assignment. In my view there should be additional pay, a reduced load and increased status given to the teacher who works with slow-learners. I have worked with both and frankly the results are more heartwarming and exciting. Slow-learners have been rejected so long in this city that they have lost hope of ever achieving any success.

Morale is terribly low in this city. When teachers try to organize and work for improvements they are branded as trouble makers and are subject to a variety of harrassments and subtle types of intimidation. They find themselves transferred to other schools where, in spite of their years of teaching, they must establish seniority in that building, receive all the grubby assignments just as a new teacher starting out from the very beginning. Strange as it may seem, in Washington, a new teacher is given all the undesirable classes, the worst room, the fewest supplies, the oldest of equipment, and very little guidance as to how to cope with the vast amount of forms and records that must be kept. The attrition of first year teachers in Washington, D. C. is terribly high. Many decide that teaching is not for them or they leave and go to the suburbs or to another area.

In addition if a teacher is a non-conformist and tends to shake the established way of doing things he is certain to be denied any hope of advance-

ment regardless of the merit question. Prior to desegregation, administrators used to have their own social organization and they met periodically and determined whom they would accept into their ranks. Although this same procedure is not formally constituted today there seems to be considerable evidence that it still works.

The type of criticism is not typical within a school district of this size, nor are these opinions universal. Yet, with the nation's other large cities, Washington shares the problem of teacher-administration tension.

The problem of teacher prejudice and discrimination is difficult to explore. The view expressed above repeated itself several times in the questionnaires. In addition, many of the teachers revealed, in their answers, very little understanding of the causes of deprivation - the teachers seemed in a sense to be divided between those who are militantly on the side of the "slow" or disadvantaged learner and those who have very little understanding or sympathy for him.

A great many of the teachers do not seem to realize that their students are unable to read the textbooks. They know that the children are not learning and they want to do something about it, but only a few seem to feel that the remedies need to be more severe than adding some supplementary materials or films and getting freed of clerical work so they will have more energy for teaching. They complain bitterly about other lacks, but when asked how to improve their situation, they mention "better textbooks" more than anything else.

Language Ability and the Social Studies. The primary purpose of the questionnaire administered to students was to determine how well they could respond to open-ended questions that required them to structure their ideas and express them in writing. Most of the children at most of the age levels were able to give some response to the questions. However, as expected, the survey revealed a complete range of differences in writing ability, in ideas about the issues that were brought by the questionnaires and in background knowledge. Two conclusions may be drawn from this: (1) there is reason to believe that instruction for these children can focus meaningfully on social issues, and (2) the range of language ability is so wide and follows neighborhoods so faithfully that radical differences in instruction must exist from one school to another. The elementary school children from some neighborhoods write more fluently and knowledgeably than do the high school children from others. Wide curricular differentiation is called for, especially with respect to teaching methods.

Curricular Coordination and In-Service Training. It is not uncommon in large cities to find that curriculum area supervisors bear an ambiguous relationship to the teacher. To be effective at the secondary level, a supervisor needs to work through department heads, how, however, frequently see themselves as primarily responsible to the principal. At the elementary level the teacher often finds himself relating to the principal, elementary supervisors, and subject area supervisors. This ambiguity exists in Washington. Hence, in schools where supervisors, principals, department heads and teachers have a close personal or professional relationship, the supervisor can be a potent force. Where they do not bear close relationships (and in a huge city closeness is not possible in a large proportion of cases), the supervisor has little opportunity to help the teacher. Released time for in-service training and instructional materials are the province of the principal, who may delegate to the department head. In-service training, especially on any scale, can only be initiated by supervisors, who, however, have no authority with respect to personnel selection. A sizeable number of unqualified teachers are assigned to social studies classes.

Actually, the supervisory staffs are almost an afterthought in Washington. All but one of the social studies supervisors were new in the 1966-1967 school year. Only one was assigned to the elementary school area. They have no funds for consultants, in-service training or materials. They have no resources to create instructional materials for use in schools.

Curriculum Guides and Courses. There is agreement that the curriculum guides are out of date and poorly articulated from K-12. There is neither an in-service program to prepare teachers to teach use of the courses or units nor is there help for the teacher who wishes to develop something new. A teacher has the aid of his curriculum guide, his textbook and informal help from nearby teachers. Frequently, it is new teachers who are given "floating" assignments, moving from one room to another throughout the day. The supervisors cannot prevent this.

Where special courses have been developed, as the ninth grade ancient and medieval history course for talented students, the social studies faculty has great difficulty restricting enrollment to able students.

The supervisors feel that they would like to strengthen the American History courses and those on the Near East and improve use of audiovisual materials. While they have coordinated workshops in the latter area, they do not feel effective even at the secondary level, where many of them are best qualified.

Supervisors, department heads and principals are confronted with such personnel shortages, problems in instructional material, and perhaps most demoralizing, the awareness of their relative powerlessness, that it is natural that they should try to standardize instruction as a means of improving it. If they could develop curriculum guides which were more thorough and modern, acquire better texts, supplementary materials, and audiovisual equipment, and if they were able to mount adequate in-service training programs, they believe they could improve instruction by "bringing it up to the mark." There is something to be said for this strategy, but one of the effects is to discourage the independence of some teachers.

In speaking to task force members, administrators throughout the District were sharply critical of the deviation from textbooks and curriculum guides that is taking place in the "model" schools. It seems fair to say that the "desirable" teacher, from the standpoint of supervisors and administrators, is one who follows guides and texts, but supplements with other instructional materials and tries to relate what is being covered to the lives of the children and the times. Most subscribe to the view that the "basic" content of the text is especially important for the lower-class child. They do not accept the concept of a compensatory education which attempts to give the disadvantaged a different kind of education in order to overcome the disadvantage.

Recommendations. A vigorous social studies program weaves together personal, sosicial and intellectual development. It is personal in that it helps individuals discover and examine themselves and explore problems that concern them. It is social in that it develops humane values and the commitment to participating in the society and making it better. It is intellectual in that it teaches the important analytic tools of the social scientist. It helps the student understand the evolution of human culture and the major trends in the contemporary scene.

The goal of reform in the Washington schools should be to create vigorous personal, social, and intellectual programs and to engage in the continuous re-creation of these programs. The District is far from having regenerative capacity at present. The very

structure of the school system will have to be changed radically if there is to be any significant improvement. All five following recommendations depend on changes in policy, resources, and school organization that involve the entire school program.

It is recommended that laboratories for self-instruction in skills and basic knowledge be set up in the District schools. Large class size, individual differences, poor teachers and poor instructional materials all hinder present attempts to individualize instruction. Educational technology has reached the state where laboratories can be constructed in which close analysis of individual needs can be made and in which children can teach themselves by means of programmed materials, films, packets of books and other materials. It is now feasible for a city like Washington to develop such laboratories for conveying skills and basic information in all curriculum areas, with careful diagnosis and subsequent monitoring of progress, and a careful matching of materials to the development of the student. Models of individually paced instruction already exist. A center, appropriately staffed, should be organized to identify objectives which can appropriately be achieved through individualized instruction, create and test the needed materials and explore ways of coordinating efforts with the work of the classroom. In the junior and senior high schools, these laboratories can be responsible for much remedial work as well as for basic instruction.

It is recommended that television be used judiciously and supplemented with written materials to introduce new content and teaching techniques to the classroom. So many teachers need improvement in subject matter and teaching techniques that it seems futile to reach a large proportion through personal instruction and supervision. One or two topics can be chosen each year and television courses prepared for both teacher and student. For example, during one year a social science might be emphasized throughout the District. Programs on anthropology, for example, could be beamed at a number of grade levels and teachers of all grades. Written instructional materials could be prepared and released simultaneously. The televised lessons could be viewed both as instruction for the children and demonstrations for the teachers.

It is recommended that talented teachers already in the schools be gathered into tactical "Innovation Teams" which can move into schools, demonstrate new techniques and content and train the teaching staffs. Some of the teams might specialize in interpersonal relations, becoming expert in moving into a school, diagnosing the social situation, and helping the staff create a more favorable school society. Other teams might specialize in the social sciences and develop the capacity to retrain school faculties. A few teams might be instructional tacticians and train themselves to help teachers learn to use new instructional strategies. These teams might spend weeks or even months in one school, working with students and faculty, and then move to a new situation. They should also work in the staff development center for training.

It is recommended that a steering committee be formed of specialists representing the sources of the social studies, plus specialists in instructional technology and the supervisors of social studies. The committee would include social scientists, specialists in contemporary societal development, specialists on child development, instructional technologists, curriculum specialists and supervisors.

This committee should commence the systematic development of plans for curriculum development and coordination in the social studies. As it produces plans, it should test their feasibility and validity. While the Self-Instruction Centers, Mass Media Centers, and Tactical Forces should come under the direction of this committee, the establishment of those centers should not wait the development of a comprehensive plan.

As the committee proceeds, it should establish administrative procedures for carry-

ing out effective supervisory practices. The extent to which this can be done successfully will depend on the way the District solves the problems generated by existing administrative roles. The roles and responsibilities of building principals, especially, need to be re-evaluated.

One result of committee activity will be a concentration on many problems that now retard social studies instruction. For example, original sources of information need to be made available to teachers and students. Resource units on the problems of urban America need to be assembled. Game-type simulations should be developed and introduced into the system.

The steering committee should set up several pilot laboratories for testing and "debugging" innovative practices. Research centers are needed at the elementary and secondary levels and for middle-class and disadvantaged areas as well.

If all four recommendations were implemented, what would be the anticipated result? The Individualized Instruction Laboratories would result in much better adjustment of instruction to individual growth than can be done at present. High school students who needed map skills could be given them, while elementary school children who were able to study the Renaissance could do so. The creation of a television and materials center could result in substantial upgrading of content and the introduction of improved teaching tactics on a system-wide basis. The possibilities are many. For example, simulation techniques for teaching international relations could easily be introduced for secondary academically-able students. Or, economics for the disadvantaged might be introduced, complete with demonstration teaching and materials for both teachers and children.

The development of tactical forces would provide the District with the capability of massive intervention in the instructional situation of particular schools. Since both the human relations and the instructional situations in many schools are poor, substantial intervention capacity is critical. As, over the years, conditions improve, the tactical forces could help bring about increased local school activity in curriculum development.

Finally, the creation of a research committee to study the social sciences, the society, the student, and instructional technology should gradually develop comprehensive plans for the social studies. When that is done the curricular process will become more rational and less haphazard and innovative forces could be coordinated. Research centers should bring about the creation of diverse curricular patterns adapted to the different populations within the schools.

H. Foreign Languages[1/]

Foreign languages instruction may be viewed in two ways. On the one hand, it may be taught largely according to a utilitarian philosophy, with success measured by objective test instruments and in terms of achievement as evidenced by oral language facility, accuracy, comprehension, and ability to translate. (In such cases, of course, ancillary benefits may accrue: heightening of linguistic sensitivity to one's native language, broadening of cultural tolerance and insight, etc.) On the other hand, foreign-language instruction may be viewed as a specific component of a broad educational experience. Regardless of the foreign language "talent" of the individual student and almost without regard to achievement test results, it is altogether possible to consider that exposure to the thinking of a foreign language, the elements of a foreign culture, the characters and values of a foreign literature, all are beneficial to the formation of healthy and tolerant perspective on the part of the student.

In a system with a heterogeneous, geographically unstable student body such as the one in Washington, the very inclusion of foreign languages in the curriculum is hard to justify unless the major stress is the broad general experience of foreign language study as suggested in the second of the two viewpoints above.

Assuming a sound philosophy at the supervisory level and general cooperation among principals, teachers, and budget-alloting authorities, problems might be anticipated in uniformity, evaluation procedures, competence of teaching personnel, and communications systems for feedback and morale.

General Observations. The entire foreign language program clearly suffers from unevenness, lack of uniform direction, absence of any feeling of a whole with similar parts working toward identical or at least analagous goals. Questionnaires, class observations and discussions with teachers reveal a general feeling of lack of guidance and direction. The typical District foreign language teacher is not incompetent. Command of the language taught varies from mediocre to native; understanding of modern methods and aids runs the gamut from annoyed ignorance through frustrated interest to up-to-date competence. Most teachers act as if they are on their own hook from day to day; what is worse, they feel that way. Isolation from counterparts in other schools (i.e. absence of an esprit de corps within the system) and difficulty in feeling the supervisory support available apparently leaves teachers peculiarly vulnerable to frustratic and depression. Hence, when combined with inadequate physical facilities, classes with heterogeneous pupil preparation, and shortages of appropriate materials, a number of teachers tend to give up.

The stated goals of the system are clearly utilitarian; and the tracking system underscores the idea of language study being a somewhat aristocratic, intellectual activity to be reserved largely for students doing well in general and/or showing clear promise of achievement.

There are two special foreign language projects going on in the District schools. Both may well be laudable in other school contexts. But, given the depressed state and disparate implementation of the basic language program, it is hard to justify the energies, monies, staff and emotion going into the FLES (Foreign Language in the Elementary School) and the Latin FLES programs. Both projects could be interesting and exciting were there not more crucial demands on the system for revitalizing the teaching of foreign languages as a whole and upgrading foreign language teachers.

Facilities and Materials. In general, available facilities and equipment can be described as "moderately inadequate." That is, there are some language laboratories

1/ Dr. Mordecai So. Rubin prepared the report on which this section is based.

some visual aids; rooms and buildings are not disasterously bad with a few dramatic exceptions. But the word "disjointed" -- generally applicable to the foreign language component of the District system -- is critical here. Some teachers know how to use a laboratory effectively, but that is an accident of personal background. Other teachers do not even know what the intent is for the existence of recorded tapes to accompany language texts. A number of teachers deplore the absence or unavailability of filmstrips, movies and other visuals. It should be noted that, in theory, these things are available and/or are being provided. In fact, the classroom teachers do not seem to be served adequately or oriented to materials of instruction.

Textbooks in use are adequate in the sense of being up-to-date. However, the correspondence is poor between texts and language levels. A number of teachers felt that texts were selected capriciously, further testifying to lack of guidance and uniformity in the system.

Teaching Personnel. The problem of procuring and retaining qualified teacher personnel is acute for any weak system and is shared by the foreign language department in common with all other instructional areas. Foreign language is in large measure a skill more than an informational area. It requires of the instructor personal talent and special training in methodology. While it is not necessary that all teachers be native speakers, it is rather essential that the teacher speak the language free of over-typically American and regional "foreign" accent and error. In the extreme cases where the teachers' French or Spanish accent are patently Alabaman, Texan or New York, the situation must be met squarely by orienting the class to imitating authentic accents -- on tape, from native-speaking students or other sources. The District system has a fair share of poor sounding language teachers; there is no visible or audible sign of awareness or compensatory activity.

In regard to spoken language competence and with respect to teacher competence in general, it must be stressed that observed deficiencies were in no wise limited either to temporary or permanent personnel. For the most part, classroom teachers appear to be sincere and interested -- surprisingly so. But their training for the textbooks, instructional resources and the direct method, applied linguistics pedagogy in use today needs more than refreshing; massive upgrading is required.

The supervising director has taken some steps toward orienting teachers and has given attention to personal rather than paper competence of foreign language teachers to be hired. The last budget requested funds for the expansion of the FLES system to all schools, as part of an attempt to make school programs and facilities more uniform. However, the gap between classroom reality and the policy formulations can only be ascribed suggests a serious lack of communication between the central office and the teachers.

FLES and Latin FLES. There is little need to defend the concept of FLES (Foreign Languages in the Elementary School) in general. Early exposure to foreign language can be salutary and exciting for children, even apart from considerations of a "head start" for language studies later. And, today's atmosphere of international communications, especially in Washington, offers youngsters helpful and recreational reinforcement outside of school. However, in the District as in too many systems, there is no coordination between FLES (starting at grade three) and later language study (begun around eighth grade). The number of years of FLES that the child has varies with the particular language and the school he attends. At the junior high, no real provisions are made for students with FLES background. In fact too often they are denied the opportunity for continuing with the language they had in the FLES stage. At the high school level FLES students are apparently sprinkled among students who have had no previous exposure to the foreign language.

The questions of what or who should determine which foreign language a student elects in junior or senior high school -- or whether he be denied language study altogether -- have not been well handled in Washington. The tracking system, for example, though purportedly organizing students into homogeneous groups, categorizes students by questionable criteria at an early grade level with few chances to change classifications; motivation is fundamental in language learning. A foreign language at home, ethnic background, and FLES exposure often result in clear preferences on the student's part concerning which foreign language he is to study. It is hard to find reasons for disregarding his desires. The question of who studies what language must be resolved on more rational bases.

FLES Latin is given in 17 elementary schools; two schools have no other foreign language. The background and temptation for the Latin FLES program are easily understood; there is a great deal of voluntary help in the Washington area to assist with and to induce enthusiasm about any educational project in Latin. There has been some talk of a resurgence of Latin studies across the country. The Latin FLES program can be supported as forward looking. However, in the District with its more fundamental educational problems, it is a questionable program.

Objectives and reasons for the Latin and Latin FLES programs can be advanced but they all sound a little like rationalizations -- especially in view of the crying need for money, personnel and supervisory attention in the non-basic foreign language program in the city. The fact that some Russian instruction is available is forward-looking enough. Surely the objectives of the FLES program cover a number of the reasons advanced for the Latin project and do it better.

Latin in the sixth grade is supposed to form a "basis" for later foreign language study. But FLES begins at grade three and the District is now trying to expand FLES to all elementary schools. Latin as a basis for betterment in English is not entirely unsound but conservative and indirect. To glean from Latin a knowledge of prefixes, suffixes, roots and then really apply this knowledge to English is a sophisticated procedure. The problems of the D. C. students with the English language hardly center around inadequate understanding of morphology.

Since considerations of Latin literature or background for legal work are not relevant, the program must be judged on its stated objectives, including the betterment of English and the improvement of understanding of other cultures and other peoples. The improvement in English is more likely to come from the study of English and, perhaps, in better training of English teachers: application of modern linguistics; economic and cultural renewal of neighborhoods; and cultural enrichment of the entire school curriculum and atmosphere. Better understanding, if not to be directly taught in a social studies context, certainly is more dramatically and sensibly achieved through the modern language FLES program than through Latin. As far as the direct experience in the classroom, it must not be forgotten that Latin studies along modern lines of applied linguistics are undermined by the lack of reinforcement of oral experience through the normal channels of radio, TV, movies, foreigners on the street, etc.

Recommendations. Much can be done to improve the present system by focusing energies and attention on such matters as the following: an active and accessible communications system -- both directions -- between the supervisor's office and all foreign-language teachers; modern methodological orientation for all teachers; standardization of laboratory equipment and audio-visual aids made uniformly available to language classes; instruction and demonstration to go with all equipment and resources prior to operation; elimination of the Latin FLES project or limitation to selected schools where a need is clear; development of mechanisms and checks for follow-up of FLES in the upper

grades; organization of more homogeneous language sections on the basis of performance rather than prognosis; and selection of textbooks for all levels of the language program.

The above areas overlap, of course. Communications, for example, affect most of the other areas and will certainly determine the effectiveness and continuity of any improvements. There is a need for a basic vehicle for exchange of problems and views, not merely the proclamation of directives. Little imagination is needed to envision an addressograph mailing of a supervisor's newsletter replete with articles and letters from teachers, reviews of textbooks, notices of meetings and conventions, etc. (but no official directives). Periodic departmental lunches with the supervisor for each cluster of schools could easily be arranged. Such measures all involve the supervisor's time but high-level assistants could share the assignment. The system needs the esprit de corps, standardization and raised faculty morale. Meetings should be arranged for refresher workshops, demonstrations, films to follow up the teacher's individual training with re-motivating stimuli common to all the language teachers. At such workshops or meetings, provision should be made for exchanges among the teachers and between teachers and supervisory personnel, to review methodology, textbooks, complaints, problems, new ideas.

It is recommended that a survey be undertaken to thoroughly assess teacher competencies in direct method, linguistics-based classroom techniques. A major program should then be undertaken (with funds for subsidies or federal funds through institutes) for teacher upgrading. Teachers should be helped to attend summer, week-end or vacation institutes sponsored jointly by the District and institutions of higher education. Specific training in modern instructional methods must be viewed as a concrete component of teacher preparation, equivalent to certification.

It is recommended that minimum standards be set and implemented for foreign language facilities in all schools. Each teacher should be apprised of all resources and facilities available in the building and from other sources in the District. Instruction and demonstration are critical in guaranteeing the appropriate and effective utilization of visual aids and lab equipment. It is not enough simply to demonstrate a whole battery of varied equipment at an orientation meeting.

It is recommended that the Latin FLES program be eliminated or sharply curbed at this time. Recognizing the personal involvement and commitment of some staff and the problem of providing continuity for the children who have begun the program, the language instruction needs are too great for the investment required for this portion of it. It might justifiably be reserved at present as an option for honors students.

It is recommended that the FLES experience be articulated with further language study. Teachers reported that students expressed desires to pursue the language to which they were exposed in an earlier FLES program and were, instead, arbitrarily shifted into other languages. It should be possible to keep and use records of the FLES experience in planning for individual students. On the basis of such experience, tested for residue, greater sequence and continuity could be provided and some of the heterogeneity in language classes could be reduced. The problem of unevenness within the language classes can be reduced. The problem of unevenness within the language classes can be corrected to some degree if differences in previous exposure and attainment are considered in planning and scheduling.

Teachers who must live with and use textbooks and other instructional materials should participate in adoptions. Little thought and less planning seem to have been involved in determining textbooks for the respective levels of language teaching.

The students' foreign language experience must be made exciting, broadening and stimulating, rather than a dreary effort to master a tongue that is not his own. To this end, teacher orientation should include emphasis on the importance of a foreign culture atmosphere in the classroom and discussion of "picturesque" aspects of typical behavior, interesting contrasts between our culture and that of the countries whose language is being studied. In Washington, the international capital of the world, the resources are readily available. The foreign nation resources of the area must be brought into the language program in an integral, planned fashion.

It is recommended that foreign language clubs be systematically encouraged, led by carefully selected individuals; this would not only supplement the broad objectives of language study but could add badly needed color, variety and imaginative cultural enrichment to the Washington school scene. Since part of the reform suggested in this report should result in the extension of language study opportunity to more students, any enrichment through the foreign language program would be meaningful to the entire school system.

It is recommended that the District strive for smaller classes in adequate and cheerful classroom surroundings. These problems are universal in the District, but some of the FLES teachers, because they have no home base in the schools, work under appalling conditions.

It is recommended that the supervising director's office, at least for the present, give highest priority to functions of teacher training, coordination, evaluation and follow-up -- in short, to supervision rather than innovation. The need for follow-up mechanism for all intended improvements is especially important. Part of the discrepancy between classroom reality and the formulations of goals results from the assumption that knowledge about techniques is translated automatically into habitual classroom behavior.

Finally, the District has not given adequate attention to the instructional problems of pupils whose native language is not English. There is, for instance, an increasing number of children who are Spanish-speaking and for whom English is a second language. It is recommended that the District develop some pilot programs for teaching English as a second language, relating the techniques and procedures to those involved in foreign language instruction. In addition, although an individual's native language is other than English, he usually has not been exposed to instruction in that language -- e.g., Spanish for Spanish-speaking pupils. It is recommended that the District develop and test instructional programs for non-English speaking students in their native languages. Such experimental programs could provide answers to such questions as whether separate classes are needed, whether the standard Spanish sequence is appropriate for a Spanish-speaking child, how native-language students can contribute to foreign language instruction of English speaking pupils. Programs of this nature might also make a positive contribution to the self-concepts of the students involved as well as engender good-will and understanding.

I. The Fine Arts

There is a growing movement toward reconsidering the nature and place of the arts as an aspect of general education. Variously called Aesthetic Education, Allied Arts, or more simply, The Arts, the movement is developing rapidly in a number of places. Because of this and the study committee's basic sympathy with the intent of this movement, it decided to treat the arts in the schools collectively. The present report discusses the concept of aesthetic education,then offers separate reports on music, fine and industrial arts, and speech and theater. These reports are, like others dealing with the instructional program, based on the work of task forces which visited classrooms, conducted interviews, and examined official documents.

The General Conclusion. There is considerable agreement among the task forces that the programs in the fine and industrial arts are seriously inadequate: materials are inadequate, and existing facilities are unsuitable, pupil-teacher ratios are generally too high. Moreover, the administrative structure required for long-range and coherent planning is seriously fragmented. The music program, on the other hand, is held to be satisfactory and successful on the whole, despite insufficiencies in personnel, equipment, facilities, and coordination.

Little attention has been paid to articulation and coordination of the arts program as a whole. Even less attention has been given to relationships between the arts and other aspects of the curriculum. The fine arts, when coordinated at all with other subject matter areas, are simply used illustratively and in an unimaginative fashion. The industrial arts have been treated separately, and no visable articulations have been effected between them and any of the other arts areas, not to speak of the cognitive content areas.

The Argument for the Arts. The situation thus evaluated could be duplicated in almost any American school system of any size. What is reflected in the District schools reflects the general lack in our culture of a coherent and systematic view of the place of the arts in life. It cannot be asserted, therefore, that the lack of planning and the apparent absence of understanding regarding the significance of the artistic-aesthetic in children's lives are insufficiencies in Washington alone. There are, undoubtedly, unique deficiencies where materials and facilities are concerned; but the broad deficiencies in the teaching of the arts in Washington reflect those which appear throughout the public schools, and indeed, in education generally.

Education in the arts takes on a special importance in schools with such a high proportion of disadvantaged children. The arts can play an especially salutary role for these children if properly administered and taught. The task forces, therefore, find the visible inadequacies in Washington more troubling than they might be in communities which succeed in satisfying many of their students' needs in other ways. It must be admitted that no empirical proof of the utility of art education can be offered. No satisfactory evidence exists that demonstrates whether experience in the several arts contributes, as this task force thinks it does, to the growth, motivation, and constructive self concept of the individual child who is in other ways retarded, under-achieving or unsuccessful. However, the argument that these consequences can be anticipated is intrinsically very strong. The very definition of education in the arts calls for a construction of one's response to art objects in such a way as to demand a measure of self-discovery. It is of the essence of the experience of art that in confronting art objects, one confronts one's self.

1/ Dr.Maxine Greene coordinated the reports on which this section is based.

Perhaps the most defensible claim for the arts is that they make available feelings of success through aesthetic confrontations and performance. This feeling of success may well be one of the reasons for the expressed satisfaction with the music curriculum in the Washington schools: learning how to perform on a musical instrument frequently helps a youngster to compensate for damage done his self respect by lack of academic success. Although there is no apparent evidence that "transfer" takes place between such feelings of success, and achievement in the academic areas, current emphasis on these variables (as in the Coleman Report) supports the belief that the psychological gains made through artistic experience are of more than incidental significance.

Work has been done in the field of industrial arts which has shown the psychological benefits to be derived from the handling of "resistant materials." It is at least likely that the visual and graphic arts (and creative writing as well) may be interpreted as encounters with resistant materials, since all media are, to a large extent, resistant when youngsters begin using them as means of expression and communication.

There remain the more general "uses" of art experiences: their value in enabling human beings to form and order their private worlds; their value in enabling people to discover "objective correlatives" for their passions, resentments, anger, and so on; their value in stimulating self-discovery, particularly the discovery of the self as unique, potent, and capable of some sort of "making" and expression. When the traumatic experiences of many disadvantaged children are considered, the lack of consistent verbal stimulation and the attrition of their environments, their inner worlds in many senses may be inchoate, chaotic and impenetrable. It could well be that the opportunity to order even some dimensions of their internalized experience by means of artistic activity may "ready" them in some distinctive fashion for other kinds of achievement.

There is much current talk about the "alienation" of Negro children from the mainstream of society, about the importance of Negro identity, about the traditional elimination of the American Negro from history. It goes almost without saying that attention may be paid in the arts, particularly, to these problems, since it is through the various arts that Negro people have defined their experience most distinctively. It is the arts which make immediately available to children some formed awareness of what it is to be an individual human being who is also a Negro, relating to the mainstream by means of and through the medium of his own particular life experience. The arts give form to that experience; they impart a human worth to it as they give it aesthetic quality and as they communicate what it is like.

Moreover, there seems to be a particular relevance in some of the modern art forms for the contemporary experiences of Negro children. Modern arts, in the various areas, are commonly acknowledged to be preoccupied with alienation, self-creation, subjectivity, and "rebellion" of various kinds. In aesthetic discourse, in fact, the Negro is often made the veritable emblem of the human being most afflicted by a depersonalizing and indifferent society. There would seem to be a potential value to be secured in encounters with examples of modern art -- informed encounters made more than incidental by thoughtful teaching about the sensual, formal, technical, and expressive qualities in current forms.

Summary of Recommendations. The recommendations in the reports that follow center on the administrative structure. It is recommended that the position of supervising director for art instruction be raised to the level of director of the arts, with clearly defined authority for staff relationships, recruitment and screening of teachers, allocation of materials, and consultation with respect to improvements in facilities and the provision of new facilities. These functions, currently performed either by

the school building principal or by members of the central administration of the school other than the art supervisor, account for much of the unevenness and incoherence of the present art programs. In interviews, many of the people who make these decisions began by explaining that they were wholly ignorant of the nature and function of the art program. It is recommended that assistant directors, each responsible for a particular area in the arts, be appointed. It is recommended that four schools be designated as district art centers, fully equipped for programs in the fine and industrial arts.

The recommended alteration in the structure for supervision and the coordination of the arts program made here corresponds with recommendations made by other task forces dealing with the instructional program. Here, as in many other subjects, the inadequate connection between the central office and the classroom teacher is apparent. In this case, the problem is exacerbated by the fact that staffing, the supply of materials and the development of programs have to be approved by people who don't understand the arts, before the decisions are acted on. The proposal that the central office supervisor be given the authority, currently reserved to line administrative officers, to place teachers in the schools and to advise directly on purchasing and on the coordination of art programs, strongly implies that more money spent within the present framework would be unlikely to produce significant results. While the teacher-pupil ratio is too high, especially in the elementary grades, an attempt to reduce it without improvement of the connection between the teacher and the leadership in this field is unlikely to improve the quality of the instruction actually offered. More of the same is not going to solve the problem.

The Music Program[1/]

Interviews in Washington make it clear that, by and large, the music teachers are satisfied with the stated goals of the program, and believe that their needs consist entirely of more people, materials, equipment, facilities, and more extensive city-wide coordination. They believe that the purposes as stated are sound. These include the large personal, social, aesthetic, and educational goals generally held by professional educators. No special programs or approaches are contemplated for any identifiable group of students in the schools. All the students are considered capable of handling the music program without differentiation, depending only on the adequacy of materials and the availability of imaginative teachers.

The stated purposes are so broad that they can and do include almost everything. A clearer definition of more specific goals is needed if the program is to achieve unity, focus, and direction. The vague statements of goals currently offered imply (and indeed are accompanied by) a diffuse, individually school-centered, uncoordinated program, which lacks an authoritative base. Emphasis on the goals dealing with the understanding of music structure, style, history, and literature would be helpful. The task force commends Music in General Education of the Music Educators National Conference to the attention of the Washington staff.

No distinction is made among the various groups of students in Washington. The students in the College Preparatory and Honors tracks are ordinarily unable to include music and art in their programs. In addition to the problem of finding time for such programs (to be solved only by the administrators of the schools), the music educators would do well to consider the special needs of these students when they study music.

The same is true with respect to the disadvantaged children. No special acknowledgement appears to exist of the possibilities and needs these children represent.

1/ Dr. Frank D'Andrea prepared the report on which this section is based.

There is an opportunity in Washington for the development of a music program specifically suited to the children who are there -- an opportunity which, if acted upon, would be pioneering in the United States and might well influence the development of music programs in other large cities.

The authority for determining the character of music programs in the individual school buildings must be removed from the local school principal and placed in the central office. While the top administrative personnel in Washington have a view which is supportive of the arts, this is not carried through to the level of the principal, who largely determines the time, money, staff and interest to be directed to music.

The Pupil Population and Teachers. All 134 elementary schools have a program of classroom music for all students in grades kindergarten through six. Approximately 80 schools have class instruction on musical instruments. At present, there is a ratio of 2,414 pupils per music teacher. With eight periods per day, a teacher can meet each class once every ten days. While the request for 78 additional teachers was approved for the 1966-67 school year, the usual late budget appropriation allowed only 12 new teachers to be added by February 1967. The expressed aim was to have one local teacher per school, a ratio of about 800 to 1, allowing the teacher to meet each class for a one-half hour period per week. There are 16 elementary instrumental teachers; each handles five administrative units, one day per unit. Nine new positions were approved; none was filled by February 1967. Each of the 27 junior high schools has approximately 1,000 students. Music and/or art is required in grades seven through nine. Most schools have one instrumental and two vocal teachers. A ratio of 500 to one for a vocal teacher is intended but not always achieved because of the need for teachers in other subject areas.

In the 11 senior high schools, music is elective and approximately 15 percent of the students take music. Each high school is supposed to have one vocal and one instrumental teacher. Some schools have not had one or the other for the past three to five years because of the positions being pre-empted for other areas. Only three of the five vocational schools have one music teacher. Impact Aid Schools (three junior high schools, three senior high schools) receive no special music opportunity.

When the present teaching and supervisory personnel in music in Washington speak of the need for more personnel, they are obviously referring to the gross inadequacies of the present provisions. The teacher-pupil ratios in this situation promise only the most perfunctory teaching of the subject -- so perfunctory that it might well be abandoned, unless these ratios and the quality of the staff teaching can be greatly improved.

Recommendations. It is recommended that, a minimum of two periods per week per elementary school class be offered, taught by specially trained music teachers. The instrumental program in the elementary school should be available for at least two instructional periods per week in each school. The principal of the school should not have the authority to use music positions to fill other than music needs in the school staff. Each high school should have a staff consisting of at least one vocal, one instrumental, and one classroom music teacher to offer a program of studies and performances for a larger percentage of the student body. However, action on this point is contingent upon the development of a program suitable for the various types of students in the high schools. Music instruction should be offered in the vocational and Impact-Aid schools.

Elementary School Instruction. There are 39 special music teachers in the 134 elementary schools who are judged by the assistant director to be qualified and to have

strong programs. The self-contained classroom teachers are sympathetic and supportive of music, but are generally not qualified to carry it on in any systematic fashion. The present pupil-teacher ratio in the elementary schools makes it virtually impossible for the music teacher and the classroom teachers to plan together. The intent is that the special music teacher will introduce work which will then be carried on by the classroom teacher -- an intent that is not really possible under the present arrangements.

The chief obstacles to a fully developed program appear to be inadequate materials, equipment and music specialists. All ordering must be done through the principal who, with insufficient funds, usually spends money on other areas. There is a real dissatisfaction among the staff with ordering and budgeting, which are characterized by long delays and inflexibility.

An instrumental music program, started about 1957, is available in only 53 percent of the elementary schools. There was a dramatic expansion of the program in 1964. Where the program exists, the staff is enthusiastic about the results and the schools are well supplied with instruments. The chief difficulties are with facilities and scheduling and the lack of coordination between the instrumental and vocal programs.

It is recommended that staffing be increased and that coordination between the instrumental and vocal programs be improved. The all-city elementary chorus, a desirable feature of the program, should be continued and an all-city orchestra should be started.

Music Instruction in the Secondary Schools. The Washington staff believes that the best music teaching occurs in the junior high school general music classes. Even here there is a need for more music staff, especially where, because of other demands, the principal short-changes music to meet pressures. The teachers are overloaded, especially at program and performance times.

The curriculum guide for the junior high school is poor and conventional. There is a three-year music program required at this level and time is made available for instruction by specialists. However, the opportunity for consistent and rich instruction is not capitalized on at present. Teaching materials are weak. Many music rooms lack even chalk-boards. Pianos and other audio and visual equipment are obsolete or non-existent; the phonographs are antiquated and of little value.

It is recommended that a solid three-year sequence in music for grades seven through nine be developed. Facilities, equipment and materials of appropriate level and quality should be provided. The present practice of giving music and the other arts a low priority should be ended. Budget officers may be misled into believing that they are providing adequately for music positions when, in fact, the principals use the positions for other purposes. The instrumental music program is technique and performance-oriented. A curriculum for music understanding through the orchestra and band should be developed.

Small ensembles occur here and there. Such groups, and larger ones, could serve both assembly and general music classes in an educational music program. An all-city junior high school choir, band and orchestra should be developed. The elementary and junior high school instrumental programs are not coordinated, with the result that a serious drop-off of students occurs. Joint planning between the two staffs is required.

In the senior high schools, music is an elective and is almost entirely performance-oriented. The performing groups often have to meet before or after school. Students in

the Honors and Academic tracks find it difficult to schedule music, since it does not count toward college credit and no additional time is scheduled for it. The equipment and facilities in the schools are poor. There is little coordination among staff in planning an overall curriculum of music understanding.

It is recommended that College Preparatory and Honors students be rescheduled so that at least one year of coordinated study in the arts is possible for each student before graduation. The present performance-oriented curriculum fails to include a study of music history, literature, style, structure and forms. The basic objectives of the curriculum, therefore, require redevelopment. A library of resource materials and music equipment (pianos, phonographs, tape recorders, projectors) is needed for a serious music program at the secondary school level. Finally, new instruments are required for the instrumental program. The present budget allows only for replacement of instruments as they are worn out. Such a practice inhibits the expansion of the present program.

The central office presently provided to lead the music program in Washington is neither large enough nor has it enough authority to discharge its responsibility adequately. A minimum recommendation would include a Director of Music, a Director of Elementary Music, three assistant supervisors to work with the more than 150 elementary music teachers, an elementary instrumental supervisor to coordinate the more than 20 instrumental teacher, one secondary local supervisor, one secondary instrumental supervisor. Such a staff, with proper secretarial help and office space, might be able to organize or coordinate and develop a music program on a city-wide basis.

With such a staff and an expanded instructional staff in the schools, it might be worthwhile to increase the msuic budget. Without it, further increases in the budget will not produce results commensurate with the expenditure. At present, in-service workshops, demonstrations, and visitations go on on a small and scattered basis. An ambitious series of activities of this type is essential for a proper program to be developed. The same is true for city-wide performing groups, festivals and youth programs.

The Fine and Graphic Arts[1/]

The administrative organization for the supervision of art instruction in the Washington schools makes a coherent program unlikely. The supervising director for art instruction reports to the Deputy Superintendent, but he has no authority, controls no budget, nor has he any direct relationship with the Assistant Superintendent for the Elementary and Secondary Schools. Authority for program development and budget control for the purchase of instructional materials is delegated to the individual school principals without clear guidelines or limits. The supervising director's efforts at coordination are neutralized; the art teachers are left to "bargain" as individuals in their schools, in what they perceive to be a non-supportive and sometimes hostile environment. Without exception, the task force found them to be variously discouraged and cynical. They all complained of the absence of administrative support.

Art Instruction in the Elementary Schools. The task force visited eight elementary schools. The largest had 37 classrooms and a pupil enrollment of 1,280; there were 8 teachers and 230 pupils in the smallest. Principals, art teachers, selected classroom teachers, the Assistant Superintendent for the Elementary Schools, and the Deputy Superintendent were all interviewed and classrooms were visited.

1/ Dr. Jerome Hauseman and Dr. Manuel Barkan prepared the report on which this section is based.

The curriculum guide for art instruction in the elementary schools consists of five Direction Finders charts. These are titled "Painting and Drawing," "Paper and Clay," "Printing and Bookkeeping," "Textiles," and "Construction." This approach, now abandoned in current art programs, confuses relationships between the art media and the art forms that are derived from them. Considered as a curriculum guide, these charts are too abbreviated, too elliptical and too conventional. They include limited attention to aspects of appreciation, such as the following: "Appreciate that wax crayon can be soft or shiny and can be used on many surfaces." Or, "Visit museums to see ceramic sculpture and other ceramic exhibits." This is not, of course, appreciation nor is it to be taken seriously in any other way as an effort at art education.

Direction Finders is preoccupied with media and design. It gives no attention to subjects, themes and ideas, which, on the one hand, have been the moving power behind the work of artists and which, on the other hand, can be made to serve as the source of power to lead children to focus their attention on the aesthetic consideration of subjects, themes and ideas in their own art work. The task force recommends that the Direction Finders be abandoned altogether and essential ideas behind the elementary art program be redeveloped.

Instructional Materials, Resources, and Space. Only four of the eight principals interviewed were able to furnish relevant data on the annual per pupil expenditures for art supplies in their respective schools: 41 cents, 57 cents, 65 cents, and $1.52. Some supplementary funds for art instruction are available from the PTA, Impact Aid and other sources, but these are not substantial enough to be of any consequence.

Small tools and simple equipment for art activities were generally lacking. A total of one easel, two paper cutters, one kiln, one block press and a couple of sewing machines were seen in the schools visited. One school happened to have a wealth of audio-visual equipment, but this was the consequence of a special project; it was not provided by the school system. Books, films, filmstrips and reproductions of works of art were almost entirely lacking, except in the latter school.

The classrooms are small and crowded. In some of the buildings none of the classrooms had sinks; in two buildings, there were sinks only in kindergarten rooms. There was at least one storeroom in each building, but access was possible only through the principal or custodian.

Except for one school, there was little exhibition of works of art. Corridor walls were uniformly bare and painted a drab institutional gray or buff. In one school, two small art galleries were created out of the foyers leading to the auditorium; these seemed to serve as focal points in the building. Nowhere was there any evidence of fine reproduction of works of art or originals by professional artists. The principal of one school reported that there had been a traveling exhibit on view from the Smithsonian Institution. No evidence was seen of using the National Gallery of Art.

Art Teachers and Specialists. In January 1967, the number of art teachers was being expanded from 12 to approximately 67. Funds had been appropriated to appoint 55 additional art teachers, thus shifting from the teacher-pupil ratio of approximately one to 7,500 to an anticipated ratio of one to 1,350. The current operational ratios appeared to be highly uneven from school to school for no apparent reason. Among the schools visited, five principals reported that their art teachers came to their schools about twice a month, a teacher-pupil ratio of 328 per teacher day. Another principal of a school with a population of 830 reported that the art teacher came eight times a month or approximately 104 children per teacher day. A principal of a small school reported undependable visits from the art teacher.

There was no evidence of a considered program for the assessment of what the students learned from their work in art. Most of the art work done in correlation with other school subject matters seemed to be more of the illustrative cut-and-paste variety, rather than intended the art learning.

The classroom teachers varied greatly in their estimate of their own ability to provide adequate art instruction. Some reported that they have learned all they know on the job. Some thought they were "pretty good"; other expressed "little confidence."

About two-thirds of the art teachers are permanent; a little more than 25 percent are temporary. Only a little more than half of these teachers maintain membership in the professional art education association; a large number of them seemed to be operating on the basis of whatever earlier education they had, and personal bias, without much benefit from the rapid changes in ideology and practice now going on in this field.

The art specialists reported from none to two or more in-service workshops in each school, depending on the principal and teachers. Some art teachers reported that certain schools "don't use" in-service workshops in art. Others indicated that some classroom teachers do not want them but the principals do. From the descriptions of the workshop content, they appeared almost entirely oriented toward helping classroom teachers develop some minimal skills in the use of the available art materials. There was no evidence that the workshops dealt directly with the aesthetic content of art instruction. The in-service program for the teaching of art is spotty in scope and limited in content, in the judgment of the task force.

Individual interviews with the art specialists revealed almost uniform dissatisfaction and lack of gratification in the work they were doing. More than one volunteered appreciation for the anonymous interviews with the task force, without fear of reprisal. Their specific desires included: "being a classroom art teacher rather than a traveling art teacher," "an art room," "better lines of communication," "better scheduling," and "an art teacher in every building." The two most revealing comments were the need for the definition of objectives for art instruction and clarification of the art teacher's position. The art teachers felt alone and unled.

From an extensive series of interviews with the art teachers, there emerges an utterly irregular pattern for the use of these people in the schools. Some of them work with all of the classroom teachers on a uniform basis, some work only with those who ask for help, others with the upper grades more than with the lower grades. One art teacher said that about one quarter of the classrooms in the buildings where she works are never visited. All of these teachers reported that their work consists primarily of teaching classes, with some conferences with the classroom teachers. There is no regular method for communication between these art specialists and the principals or the classroom teachers.

While every principal claimed that the minimum weekly time requirements for art instruction existed, there was a considerable variation in the schools. Some of the principals reported that a number of their teachers did not meet these minimums and some teachers did not teach art at all.

In general, the program planning operations to govern the teaching of art in the elementary schools seem to be so elastic, varied, and haphazard, that it was difficult for the task force to detect a program plan. The people are obviously well-intentioned but they work at cross purposes.

Junior High School Art Program. Sixteen art teachers in 10 selected schools were

visited by a member of the task force and the building principals were intereviewed. The number of art teachers in a building ranged from between one to three; the average number of students taught per week by each teacher was 309.

The guidelines for scheduling junior high art classes are derived from a 1962 memorandum "authorizing the principals to give approximately half the pupils music one semester and the other half art -- the following semester alternate these offerings ... in no case shall all the seventh grade children be given art or music at the same time, nor should the eighth or ninth grade pupils be given all one or the other at the same time." Thus, the principal could determine the timing and frequency of art instruction. Aside from this memorandum, there are no clear guidelines that establish the minimal requirements for art instruction at the junior high school level. There is another memorandum, which, in a single page, gives a brief and highly generalized statement about the art sequence.

It is not surprising, given this nondirection, that the junior high school art teachers have developed their own curriculum patterns. Their dependence on the principal for budgetary leadership has resulted in varying patterns of support. Although the principals indicated that they had no clear-cut notion of what the art program was to achieve, they are in control of it. Teachers' responses to questions about the program describe "activities" rather than concepts or ideas about art. A modest effort toward individualization differentiation can be seen in various club groupings involving the visual arts. These are at present very limited in frequency and scope.

Instructional Materials, Resources, and Space. Data gathered from six schools would indicate that the per capita expenditure for art materials and supplies is 24 cents. This contrasts with the 1963 national median junior high school expenditure per pupil of $2.52. The teachers submit requisitions for supplies listed in a general stores catalog. Orders are placed in March; it is reported that supplies are normally delivered well after the school year has begun -- often not before November. The teachers seemed to be resigned to the unavailability of materials. They recognize a great disparity between art budgets from one school to another but have given up on the problem. They are resigned, among other things, concerning the problems of getting new items listed in the general stores catalog. Three of the rooms visited were large and reasonably well-lighted, but most were crowded. In all cases, the plumbing facilities were inadequate and badly located. Almost no art rooms were equipped with black-out curtains for audio-visual purposes.

The Art Teacher in the Junior High. Art classes range in size from 9 to 42 with the average class size 30.3 students. Each art teacher carries an average student load of 309 students per week. The greatest number of students taught per week per teacher was 554; the smallest, 190. The largest number of art classes taught per week by one teacher is 29; the smallest, 15. The average number of classes taught per week is 23.3.

Again, there was little, if any, organized effort to test and assess student progress in art. There are no guidelines concerning the cognitive knowledge about works of art or architecture, artists or processes or techniques.

In a questionnaire distributed to all junior high school art teachers, 12 of 22 responding help permanent certificates and 5 held a probationary certificate. The range of teaching experience in Washington was between one and 22 years; the average was 8.2 years. Sixteen of the 22 responding indicated that their only teaching experience had been in Washington; the average teacher experience outside of Washington was 1.4 years. Four of the responding teachers indicated that they belong to at least three professional organizations; five indicated that they were members only of the local association.

The dramatic growth in the art resources of the Washington, D. C. area (museums, galleries, etc.) does not seem to have had any impact on the junior high schools. The art periods are single periods averaging 50 minutes each. Many teachers spoke of the desirability of "double" periods to make possible the more complex studio activities. Although teachers are requested to formulate lesson plans, there is virtually no follow-up. The task force did not hear of a single unusual or experimental program in junior high school art instruction.

The High School Art Program. The data gathered in presenting this portion of the report are from 11 high schools. Seventeen art teachers and 11 principals were interviewed and classes observed.

Again, there is no clearly defined operational plan that identifies the content of high school art programs. Art courses in the high schools are listed with an offering six semesters long. The programs appeared to concentrate on drawing, painting, sculpture and design. When asked to identify the kinds of activities taught, the teachers responded in order of frequency as follows: drawing, sculpture, design, graphics, ceramics, crafts and bookmaking. The general looseness of the high school art program reflects, perhaps, the curriculum directive, The Plan of the Art Program: "A student in high school interested in taking art is required to enroll in a class in the period left vacant on his program after his schedule of required subjects has been made. This is the student's free period."

The substance of the curriculum has been indicated as follows: "The subject matter offered in the curriculum offers the entire field of the major divisions of art." The only other "guide" brought to the attention of the task force was a brief outline that sets forth key terms, such as line, shape, texture, color -- hue, value, intensity, opacity, transparency, and so on. These terms are not expanded in the outline.

Instruction in art reflects the vagueness of these directives. There is no particular pattern discernable in the high schools, although, paradoxically, the task force observed that the programs became similar by virtue of their very lack of definition and clarity.

The high school art teachers thought that the most serious problems in their work were lack of supplies, overcrowding, lack of storage and work space, lack of furniture and equipment, poor student grouping, and need for better art supervision.

The high school art programs are more poorly housed and equipped than the junior high school programs. With one exception among the schools visited, the classes were equipped with drafting-type tables -- a legacy from programs initiated in the early 1900's. Almost no specialized equipment other than paper-cutters and kilns was available. While standards for art rooms have been set for buildings under construction or recently completed, there are no provisions for bringing up to date the facilities of the older rooms still in use.

The quantity and quality of audio-visual resources varies from school to school but none are completely adequate. The shortage of storage space and lack of adequate sinks in art rooms are universal.

The maximum per capita expenditure for art materials observed was $3.24; the minimum was $.52. The average of $1.98 compares rather unfavorably with the 1963 national median expenditure of $4.43 per senior high school art student reported in a National Educational Association Research Division Study of 1963. The problems of ordering new supplies in the elementary and junior high school programs also afflict the senior high

school programs. Small hand tools, power tools, and such specialized equipment as potter's wheels, enameling kilns, looms, and photographic equipment are virtually non-existent. The teachers expressed considerable dissatisfaction over the present supply and requisitioning procedures.

The vast resources of the city of Washington appeared to be used little or not at all. In some instances, art teachers reported that efforts to visit the National Gallery of Art or the Corcoran Gallery were discouraged by their school administrations.

The Teacher Staff. Given an art program that receives its student body in "periods left vacant" after all required subjects have been scheduled, it should not be surprising that classes are small and attitudes are negative. Art is perceived by some as the dumping ground for the non-verbal, slow learning students. Student groups in art classes can be so heterogeneous as to defy the possibility of an organized program with clearly defined learning outcomes. The maximum size class for high school art instruction as observed is 51; the minimum is 12; the average is 24 students per class.

The loose structure of the curriculum is reflected in an even looser effort toward testing and assessment. No organized effort appears to have been undertaken.

Forty-six percent of the teachers interviewed held permanent certificates; all the others were either probationary or temporary teachers. All of the teachers majored in art or art education in completing their bachelor's degrees. The average teaching experience is nine years; the range is from 1 to 34 years. The maximum number of classes per week is 35; the minimum 20; the average 26. Seven teachers reported membership in the local art education association; four in the National Education Association; three in the National Art Education Association; three reported no membership in any professional organizations.

The teachers work with very little supervision. The District art supervisor averaged one to two visits per year per teacher. Only two principals reported familiarity with the course of study being used by the teacher. Teacher morale seems low. The art teacher is perceived as being one who is caught between a principal who may or may not be interested in the art program and a supervising director's office that has little authority with respect to the day-to-day matters that control the teaching of art.

Recommendations. The task force recommends that there be a complete redevelopment of the art program in the District schools. The substance of the program as reflected both by the visits and examination of the present documents being used is almost wholly inadequate. There are not enough art teachers in the elementary schools and they are not offering programs that approach contemporary standards. It is recommended that the administrative arrangements pertaining to the leadership of the fine arts program in the District be changed drastically. The supervising director of art has neither the authority nor the contacts with the teachers that would be required for effective program.

With respect to the first of these two recommendations, that the program be redeveloped, the task force suggests a detailed set of goals and objectives which correspond generally with those representative of the most forward-looking art educators in the country. In a general way, it is recommended that the art program focus on art, not illustration; that the media be broadened to include those that are used by contemporary art programs; that the objectives be brought into line with the nature of art as a field of human experience.

With respect to the second recommendation, the task force urges that the Office of the Supervising Director for Art Instruction be raised to Director, with authority for: (1) recruitment, screening, and recommendations for appointment of all art teachers; (2) a staff relationship with the elementary and secondary school assistant superintendents in order to facilitate policy coordination and program development efforts; (3) supervision of art teachers at all instructional levels; (4) control of the budget, specification, selection, requisition, and allocation of art instructional materials and equipment; and (5) consultation and recommendation on all capital improvements in the existing facilities and provisions in new facilities that pertain to art instruction.

In addition, the task force recommends that the central office in art instruction be considerably enlarged in order to improve the linkage between the central office and the classroom teacher. The staff of the director of art instruction should include two supervisors for instruction in the elementary schools, one supervisor for the junior high schools, one supervisor for the senior high schools, a full-time secretary and a technician with some secretarial capacity. Without such a change at the center, the proposed large increase in the number of elementary school teachers in art would probably have little meaning.

It is further recommended that none of the augmented supervisory staff should come from within the Washington school system. The system is showing some signs of inbreeding now. In order to bring the system in touch with current thinking outside its own borders, new personnel need to be brought in.

Industrial Arts. The task force on the industrial arts combined its observations with its recommendations. It recommends that an office of a director of the arts be established. The duties and responsibilities of the director of the arts would encompass all levels of schooling within the District schools and would not be determined by the elementary-secondary organization presently characteristic of the schools. The most serious needs in the arts program and in the industrial arts program, is for articulation and coordination. Locating these functions in one office would seem to make such a program a possibility, if not a certainty.

The minimum requirement for a staff to work with the director of the arts would be as follows: (1) Assistant Director, Industrial Arts Education, (2) Assistant Director, Fine Arts Education, (3) Assistant Director, Music Education, (4) Assistant Director, Theater Arts. In addition to these, two other areas having to do with the arts might be represented: Assistant Director, Writing and Literature and an Assistant Director, Home Arts.

The intent of the task force in the industrial arts is to indicate the connectedness among all the arts, including literature. If a director for the language arts is established independent of the director for the arts, it will be necessary for these people to work out some pattern for coordination that makes it necessary, rather than incidental, that the programs be brought into some meaningful relationship with one another. The proposal for an assistant director for the home arts is contingent upon the idea that the home arts shall be conceived of as preparation for family life, including personal grooming, home decoration, and sewing and other crafts, as well as the psychological aspects of family living.

The task force on the industrial arts, like the task forces in many other fields, fails to see a coherent program and considers that the present program needs to be completely overhauled in order to make it adequate for Washington -- or indeed for any school system. The task force found it fruitless to go into great detail concerning

the inadequacies in the present program -- they are simply too numerous. A strong central leadership, with the necessary authority to override the judgments being made currently by building principals, is required if a worthy program is to be developed.

The separation of the industrial arts and the fine arts, as implied by the recommendation of separate assistant directors for these two fields, violates current thinking (and, indeed, the thinking of the past two generations) in this area. However, as long as teachers for these two fields continue to be trained separately, and as long as Washington fails to correct it through substantial in-service programs, the separation of the two programs will remain a practical necessity, though theoretically inappropriate.

Regional Art Centers. Vital to all recommendations for curriculum revision in the industrial arts is the proposal that four regional schools be established, fully equipped for the programs in the industrial and fine arts. One school would be situated in each of the quadrants of the city. While it is possible that population patterns may dictate arrangements somewhat different from the geographical one suggested here, at least four such centers would seem to be a minimum requirement. These centers would contain sufficient laboratory, shop, and studio space to perform the following functions: (1) printing shops to produce the printed materials needed by the Washington schools; (2) shop facilities to design and fabricate stage scenery; (3) woodworking shops to support a variety of ceramic processes; (4) studios for designing, planning and drawing; (5) general metal shops to support casting, metal fabrication, jewelry and enameling.

In connection with the recommendation for these centers, the task force recommends the following six items:

1. Printing. It is recommended that the printing shops now located in most junior and senior high schools be dismantled and that the space be converted to more useful purposes. The print shops are not educational facilities nor are they properly equipped. The printing program is largely a service program for its parent schools and has no particular training or educational value. Four print shops in regional art centers could perform the present service functions and also offer educational programs in printing as an art.

2. Coordination with Theater Arts. In a coordinated arts program certain requirements of the theater and drama education segment of the arts can be met by industrial arts facilities. If this were done, what is aesthetic about industrial arts would have a chance to show itself. Basic power tools and hand tools for carpentry would be necessary, an area adequate for the painting of large flats and other stage devices could be provided, and facilities for rudimentary and electric work often needed for stage design could also be made available.

3. Wood-Working Shop. Comprehensive wood-working shops should be installed in a regional facility. They would obtain the basic wood-working power tools and equipment appropriate to cabinet making, sculpture, and graphic techniques utilizing wood.

4. Ceramics. The regional centers would contain comprehensive ceramic facilities, potters wheels, equipment for mold making, equipment for calculating and compounding glazes, kilns (preferably high-temperatured and fuel-fired). This field, presently not well served in the schools, is of course a primary source of experience with art objects of great significance for the development of aesthetic sensibility.

5. Design and Mechanical Drawing. Studios and work areas suitable for classes

and design theory and mechanical drawing as related to design need to be provided. The present practice of offering mechanical drawing as a discrete course, closely tied to standard texts, should be discarded. The present program inverts the purposes of mechanical drawing. Mechanical drawing is a set of conventions. It can graphically render an idea; drawing taught in the context of purposeful activities, and as a means to satisfy form and function, is valuable. To work directly from standard textbooks is to work meaninglessly.

6. Metal-Work. Comprehensive metal-working shops need to be established in the proposed regional centers. The equipment and materials supplied should be determined by the crafts that use metals. Casting, by both gravity and centrifuge, should be provided for. The kilns and materials for enameling need to be a part of the metal shop. Special equipment for the making of jewelry or hand forging and its attendant techniques should be provided.

Centers as Distinguished from the Separate Schools. In general, the proposal of this task force is that complete art facilities be provided in at least four places in the District, in contrast with the inadequate facilities and programs now scattered through the schools. If the proposal for the centers were put into effect, then the more elaborate kinds of art activity would take place in the regional centers, but the development of music and the theater arts and literature would be carried on in each of the secondary schools. The first function of the regional centers would be to offer programs for the interested, competent, and talented students in the schools, who are not now served. It is assumed that these programs would be for a select group of students, who would be transported to the centers for half days as necessary. The art centers would also house many of the in-service programs for the arts staff of the Washington schools. Intensive in-service programs of good quality are necessary throughout the arts program, as has been indicated repeatedly in these reports. It is possible, also that these centers, if they were well equipped, could provide the means for a thirteenth and fourteenth year of study for art majors, possibly in connection with the new two-year program.

Underlying all of these recommendations is the assumption that the industrial arts is part of the fine arts program, not part of the pre-vocational program. To consider the industrial arts as art is to assume that they have aesthetic value. The proposal is based on the assumption that what is presently called the industrial arts should include equipment for ceramics, metal enameling, jewelry and the hand forging of metals. Pre-vocational training in the narrower range of skills essential for manufacture and office practice is dealt with in another section of the present general report.

Speech and Theater

A program in speech and theater, grades K-12, should be designed to serve as an outlet for expression of the student's own emotions and ideas as well as helping him to understand and accept these feelings and ideas once they are expressed. Ultimately, the goal is for the student to accept himself.

For the elementary school child, creative dramatics (improvisations based on a story or experience) under a qualified leader can develop imagination and creativity and contribute to a knowledge of form and discipline. It can help in vocabulary building, conceptualization, and sociability or awareness of others. Formal theater, on the other hand, should be limited only to those few children who have acting ability. However, plays for children performed by capable teen-agers or adults can bring to children a tremendous spectrum of vicarious experiences and at the same time serve as a balance to the mechanizing effect of the mass media. Nothing can compare with the impact of living people communicating to other living people in the same room.

The chief factors in the creative drama process are a teacher with a vast store of material and a versatility to meet the kinds of experiences common to the children but foreign to the leader; the other factor is the size of the class, 15 to 20 being the most effective number. For junior and senior high students, a program including both improvisation and formal theater is desirable. Through improvisation the youngster can assume many identities and thus acquire self-knowledge, and an understanding of other people's problems.

At this age, young people should perform in suitable plays before their peers. They should also have a chance to see living theater of the best possible quality for cultural and educational reasons. The plays by students should be directed by a qualified teacher who understands the implications for educating that are inherent in the rehearsal-performance process. The plays by professionals should reinforce curriculum offerings and should be the basis for class discussions on social and moral values, characterization, and decision-making to resolve conflicts. In many schools, plays dealing with the Negro heritage such as "In White America" are used successfully.

All of the experiences outlined above are directly related to improvement of the student's ability to use spoken language and communicate in a society which measures a man's success by his ability to use oral symbols. However, it is essential that speech and language improvement be extended to include work in the following areas: (1) language, (2) listening, (3) voice and articulation, and (4) discussion and argumentation.

The area of voice and articulation is much maligned by those who approach the study of speech improvement with an elocutionary point of view and by those who teach oral language skills in the same manner as they teach written language skills. Many disadvantaged youngsters use non-standard English and must be helped with more acceptable speech patterns without destroying their already suffering self-concepts. It is essential that the youngster hear standard speech and, by understanding the basic communication model, recognize his responsibility as a speaker and his need to acquire speech and language skills which will serve him outside his immediate environment. The fine arts program in speech and theater, by opening up the dramatic resources of the District and by expanding performance and participating opportunities in the schools can contribute to growth in several areas, intellective and non-intellective.

J. Home and Family Life (Home Economics)[1/]

The task force based its report on the visits by a team of observers to 11 junior and senior high schools, conferences with 30 teachers, visits to 25 classrooms and the examination of the District study guides. The team also conferred with the supervising directors of home economics and of girls' health and physical education.

The program offered in the District's junior and senior high schools recalls those usually offered in American schools a generation or more ago. At the junior high level, it deals with family membership, child care, consumer economics and simple skills in food preparation and sewing. At the senior high level, separate courses are offered in foods, clothing, child study, home management and home nursing. The junior high curriculum was being revised at the time of the preparation of this report.

While the District policy is to require home economics of all seventh and eighth grade girls, not all of them enroll. Principals and guidance officers apparently steer many of the more able girls away from the course. Enrollments in the senior high school programs tend to be small, consisting mainly of the academically poorer students.

Forty percent of the instructors in this field are temporary teachers. Nutrition and personal and family life are taught in the health program of the schools, not in the home economics program. In some of the classes, teachers of academic subjects (e.g., English) were teaching "health" topics as were home economics teachers. Presumably, all of these teachers had participated in a two-week workshop at the D. C. Teachers College.

New kitchen ranges were common and seemed easy to procure from the local power company. However, budget for consumable supplies was small: $25-$50 per year for foods; clothing expenses came from a "requisition fund." Few modern audio-visual aids were in evidence. The variation in sewing machines was impressive; some treadle machines are still used. Classroom and storage space were generally inadequate; lighting for sewing was often poor. One school had facilities for sewing and pressing which obviously belong together, but were separated

Program Observations. The curriculum as conceived in the District school is intended for the middle-class population which left the city years ago. Even in the suburban schools which now serve this population, the traditional program is under severe criticism. The basic difficulty in Washington is that the present curriculum is irrelevant for its students. In consequence, the observers noticed a large number of dispirited students and teachers, people who were obviously marking time. This comment is not so critical of Washington as it sounds: the fact is that no satisfactory curriculum for large city schools has been developed, although there are some promising starts. There are a few teachers who manage intuitively to meet students on relevant ground but most do not.

The problem of relevance is complicated by the understandable antipathy of both students and their parents to taking courses that appear to have an overtone of domestic service. The urban poor rightfully aspire to a new kind of life, based on work other than the low-skill service occupations. What family life means for the girls in Washington schools is barely suggested by the present courses of study. The topics that match reality must be written into the curriculum and the teachers who can handle these topics trained to do so.

There are, of course, no simple answers to the questions of suitability and impact in the field of home and family life. One teacher observed by the task force had solved

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1/ Dr. Arlene Otto prepared the report on which this section is based.

the problem by being exceedingly business-like and authoritative; the girls were responding in a business-like way and the quality of the work seemed high. Another equally successful teacher (one with a different set of goals, however) seemed to have an informal, occasionally disorderly classroom in which the girls had learned to trust her and were bringing serious problems for discussion, including those of their sex roles.

The task force observed that home economics teachers have apparently resigned themselves to classes consisting mainly of academically poor students. Because these are among the most problematical to teach, some of the finest technical pedagogy was found in such classes. But, because of the misplaced condescension towards the subject, home economics teachers are often not accorded the respect so many deserve. Their potential contribution to family stability is vital in a generation of urban migrancy, marked by fractured families. Unfortunately, too many teachers in this field seem to give up any hope of recognition or reward from the system and gradually become preoccupied with other aspects of their lives. Those who continue their commitment fill a void in the education of their students.

In the District, the fields of home and family life and of home economics have become separated: health and physical education has pre-empted the one, while the skills of homemaking fall into the other. The effect of this separation is to drain home economics of its significance, stripping it of its philosophical wholeness, leaving only routine chores as its portion. Washington appears to have given inadequate attention to such questions, peculiarly important in the urban setting, of the education of boys for effective family life or of parent-child relations or of family planning education. All of these questions and others belong properly in an articulated course in home and family life. Given the overriding values of conventional academic performance, the schools seem to have belittled home and family life for the academically successful child. When a few such children enrolled in classes, they present the teacher with a problem of gross heterogeneity with which most staff members cannot cope.

Recommendations. It is recommended that a wholesale revision of curriculum in home and family life education be undertaken. Such a revision would desirably be de novo and would represent an attempt by the District to demonstrate the available solutions to the problems of home and family life in the urban setting for Washington's present population. The committee of local staff members, supplemented by university consultants and representatives of key District agencies, public and private, should assemble ideas relative to the urban needs. These should serve as the basis for inventing new approaches to content and methods which should then be field-tested in the schools.

It is recommended that in considering the new curricula, attention should be given to:

1. Development of a family life program with a heavy emphasis on direct experiences of the possibilities of urban family life. Develop a family life program suitable for boys as future heads of families, as well as for girls as future wives and mothers.

2. Development of team instructional approaches that will remove the barriers among health, consumer economics and the social and emotional aspects of family life. Enrich these programs with a full program of sex education, including family planning and understanding of each individual's sexuality as part of his maturation.

3. Development of wage-oriented vocational home economics programs, intended to prepare some students for work in the fields of food services, child

care services, home and institutional services, practical nursing and clothing-related services. U. S. service industries now account for 55 percent of the work force, a 304 percent rise since World War II.

4. Development of an employment service, operated by the schools, providing for after-school and summer employment directly related to vocational home economics.

5. Development of a specially-tailored home economics program for the potential drop-out girl which would combine knowledge and skill with social-psychological insights regarding roles and relationships.

6. Development of teachers with the skills and self-understandings to present those demanding essentials of family stability.

It is recommended that the home and family life develop a program which will yield a large-scale immediate infusion of paraprofessionals and aides. VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America) workers might be attached to the District's home and family life programs, to work experimentally with students on a "functional education" basis. The models for this kind of work would be the kind of informal approach used by the Urban Demonstration Agent or the counselling techniques of some family case workers. The essence of the idea is that the teachers' work would focus on the actual predicaments of the students' lives. The purpose would be to explore, in a preliminary way, new topics relevant to the students.

It is recommended that the department explore ways of raising the aspirations of its students. There are many home economics-based occupations requiring post-secondary training in two- and four-year programs. Part of the home and family life education should serve an orientation and counseling function, introducing students to occupational clusters and helping plan educational programs which will enable them to enter such fields. As the Washington Technical Institute and Federal City College plan their offerings, the home and family life department could consider ways of using their resources to prepare semi-professionals and paraprofessionals in the related occupational fields.

The task force recommends the creation of cooperative relations with neighboring teacher-training institutions. Such relationships might involve joint appointments between the District schools and university faculties, planned leaves of absences for teachers to work at the universities, provision of a center for experimental teaching, special programs for training paraprofessionals and teaching interneships.

The task force recommends the development of child care and early childhood education programs for junior and senior high school girls. Such programs, involving considerable laboratory experience with the actual care of children, could provide girls with skills and insights ranging from practical nursing to child psychology to group work under the guidance of the home and family life staffs.

Finally, although the task force judged existing facilities quite inadequate, it does not recommend rushing to purchase new equipment before planning new courses and curricula. Since the home and family life program requires basic redevelopment, it would be premature to renovate existing facilities before strengthening the staff and the instructional program. Money devoted to shoring up the existing program within the existing administrative framework would only delay progress. However, any conceivable new program will require a substantial redevelopment of the facilities now in use. As soon as program revitalization is authorized and realized, home and family life educators can begin to plan the modern facilities needed to reach their new educational objectives.

K. Health and Physical Education[1/]

One of the ironies in Washington is that students in the public schools perform very well in physical fitness tests which have been developed by the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, despite programs in the schools of which the task force is critical. In 1965-66. 80.9 percent of the junior high school girls and 77.1 percent of the junior high school boys received scores above the national average. At the senior high school level, similarly favorable scores were achieved. The development of basic motor and athletic skills among the student population of the Washington schools, if these criteria are to be accepted, is well above the national average.

Physical Education in the Elementary Schools. The program in physical education at the elementary school level, as described in guides and interpreted by the supervisors in charge, is based on a sound set of objectives. The activities provided at the elementary level are similar to those most commonly found in most school systems throughout the United States: stunts and tumbling; lead-up games (such as dodge ball, kick ball, or variances of volleyball and softball); various forms of dance and rhythm; group games (circle games, tag games, relays, etc.). In the primary grades, there is provision for games which develop simple motor skills; in the upper elementary grades, the emphasis is on the refinement of such basic skills, and on games involving more complex organization. In addition, at the upper elementary school level there is an attempt to teach rules and the strategies of play for certain games, and to provide more advanced dance activities as preparation for graduation ceremonies. Students are evaluated for physical fitness at the fifth grade, when special fitness activities and a system-wide fitness testing program is carried on.

Until fall 1966, only two special physical education teachers were regularly assigned to the elementary schools. In some schools, special teachers provided by the District's recreation department came to conduct physical fitness activities. Some mothers with a background in this field volunteered their services on a part-time basis. During the fall of 1966, 25 additional specialists were authorized for elementary school physical education. This corps, when they are added, will reduce the ratio so that each specialist will have to cover only approximately five schools. A specialist could work with a given class once every four or five weeks.

The responsibility for the physical education program in the elementary schools is placed, of course, on the classroom teachers, many of whom lack training in this field. In-service training courses are offered or arranged by the Department of Health, Physical Education, Athletics and Safety of the District schools. But only a small number of the classroom teachers take part in these courses, and classroom teachers are often not present when the specialist meets their children.

During the winter of 1967, approval was given to the hiring of 89 additional physical education specialists for the elementary schools. If these people are employed, and assigned as intended, a total of 116 teachers will be available for physical education in the elementary grades. At that point, a coherent program in physical education will become a possibility for the first time in Washington.

All Washington elementary schools have outdoor areas which are used both for physical education and recess, or free play after school. In most cases, these areas are paved. All outdoor play areas have climbing structures, slides, and chinning bars.

1/ Dr. Richard G. Kraus prepared the report on which this section is based.

About one half of the schools, chiefly older buildings, have auditoriums or auditorium-gymnasiums. At present, they are often used as classrooms, as orchestra rehearsal rooms, or for other purposes. In some cases,they are not available at all for Physical Education.

In several of the newer schools there are multi-purpose rooms which are intended to serve physical education needs. However, these are also used for motion pictures, lunch, meetings, and academic activities. In crowded schools, they are sometimes divided up into classrooms. Thus, in many schools, indoor physical education activities can only be carried on inside the already crowded classrooms. The availability of indoor space is one of the serious limitations on the elementary school physical education program.

The central physical education office provides recommended lists of equipment, including balls of various kinds, bats, mats, bean bags, and phonograph records. With the exception of mats, these must all be ordered by the individual school principals through their supply clerks, using general school funds. As is the case in other "non-academic" program areas, there is evidence that principals have not been able or willing to purchase adequate supplies.

In the wealthier neighborhoods of the city, assistance is frequently given by the Parent-Teacher Association, which contributes as much as $500 during a single year for the purchase of play and game equipment.

The elementary program is generally well conceived and sound, both in terms of conventional objectives and conventional activities. The limitations of the school buildings, however, make the curriculum guides irrelevant in some cases. Either the guides or the buildings require revision.

The newer and more experimental approaches to physical education, such as the movement-exploration approach which is found in some elementary schools, are not reflected in anything proposed in Washington at present. The task force found no evidence of articulation between the elementary and junior high school programs, either in terms of the transmission of student performance records, or curriculum development. The present physical fitness instruction and testing in the fifth grade is desirable. It is unfortunate that evaluation does not take place at other elementary school levels.

The out-of-door facilities and equipment are typical of urban and elementary schools that have outside playgrounds. All such outdoor facilities should be reviewed regularly by the supervisory staff of the schools, to the end that they be kept in good playing condition. Where it is possible, indoor facilities originally intended for physical education should be restored to this function, and such facilities should be provided in the planning and design of all new schools or additions. The central physical education supervisors should, of course, be involved as consultants in all such changes of the physical equipment.

The time allotment given to physical education is inadequate. The present 15 minute per day limitation does not correspond with the amount of time recommended nationally, which is 30 minutes per day for the children of the first through third grades and 45 minutes, three days a week, for children in the upper elementary grades. The present time allotment simply does not allow for instruction.

Junior and Senior High School Physical Education. Physical education in the junior and senior high schools is divided by sex in each of the schools. The actual administration of the program is in the hands of the school principals, though professional direc-

tion and supervision is lodged with two supervising directors in the central office. The time allotment for physical education in the junior high school consists of two hours per week. At the high school level, the time allotment is normally based on three periods of physical education and two periods of health education per week. In some high schools, a solid block of several weeks of health education is provided. Administratively, the principal in each school assigns physical education teachers and appoints the department chairman.

In the junior high schools, the program as described centrally includes stunts and tumbling, various forms of recreational and creative dance, games of various types, dual and team sports, conditioning activities, and track activities. Physical fitness instruction and testing is carried on at all schools at the seventh grade. The emphasis in the junior high schools seems to be on instruction in the basic skills, rather than on recreational participation or competitive play. The bulk of participation is in large mass activities, though in a few schools a strong effort is made to include activities such as golf or archery.

Junior high school instructors are expected to make up unit plans in writing for the entire year, and in most cases also to develop detailed lesson plans. These vary from school to school; in some schools they were observed to be quite sketchy. The 27 junior high schools all have programs of intramural participation. For the boys, this includes touch football, basketball, softball, and track and field. For the girls, the program includes hockey, volleyball, archery, softball, and some other sports as well as programs in the modern dance.

At the high school level for boys, the program consists of many of the same activities at a more advanced level. There is a general stress on team games, such as touch football, basketball, softball, soccer, and track and field. Wrestling, volleyball, and calisthenics are also found generally. In several of the schools, archery, golf, badminton, and similar individual and dual sports are found. For the firls, there is a somewhat greater stress on instruction in such activities as badminton, archery, golf, and tennis, as well as field hockey, and modern dance. One also finds calisthenics and other conditioning activities. Swimming is taught in only two high schools and in no junior high schools.

At the secondary level, physical education teachers are assigned by the principals in each school. The central physical education office plays only a minor advisory function. In the girls physical education program, this situation has recently improved, in that the girls' supervising director is involved in interviews and recommendations for those applying for positions. However, this supervisor apparently has no voice at the time of hiring or assignment. It is not surpirsing, therefore, that only about one half of the teachers who are supposed to attend a mid-September regular orientation meeting for temporary or new teachers actually attend. A much smaller number actually participate in the in-service courses or clinics.

Other staffing problems include the following:

1. Physical education teachers who held coaching responsibilities have in the past not been paid. Instead they have been given compensatory time; i.e., release from teaching during the first or second class periods in the morning. This has created a serious problem of understaffing during these hours. The new policy of paying for coaching duties will improve this situation, though it may of course create problems elsewhere in staffing patterns of the system.

2. New teachers cannot be hired until the latter part of July and August, and it is therefore difficult to recruit the best new personnel.

3. The department head at the secondary level does not normally have a strong voice relating to the policy or personnel for which he is supposed to be responsible, this being in the hands of the school principal.

4. Health instruction has often been assigned teachers from fields other than physical education, and in some cases they have lacked qualifications for this field.

The general impression of the task force in physical education is, nevertheless, positive. Both in the junior and senior high schools, classes have seemed well organized, and the teachers seem to be successful in obtaining a high level of interest and enthusiasm among the students. The teachers were constantly involved in the direction and instruction of their students, rather than, as is sometimes the case, simply "throwing out the ball." The physical education staff at the secondary school level appears to be a hard-working, committed group of people.

In general, as in the elementary grades, outdoor areas are more spacious and suited for the program than are indoor facilities. While there are a few good indoor facilities, the general picture is considered very poor. The school gymnasiums tend to be very small, considering the number of students they must serve. Equipment needed for the various sports and gymnastic activities are inadequate or missing. Roof leaks, deficient ventilation, floors being torn up for repair, broken basketball hoops, inadequate or defective lockers -- all these seem common. Delays of several months or even years in the purchase of equipment or repair of facilities are reported in almost every school visited.

Analysis and Recommendations. The program as a whole, while conventional, seems to be based on sound objectives and competent curriculum guides carried out by secondary school teachers who appear for the most part to be competent. The class sizes, which range from 25 in the junior high schools to 45 in some of the high schools, do not appear to be unreasonable, except when they have to be conducted in a small gymnasium. The administrative direction by the central physical education office appears to be effective, to the degree that it is permitted to function.

There are however, several weaknesses in the program: (1) The task force found no adapted or corrective program for those students with physical incapacity or disability which prevents them from taking part in the regular program. (2) There is an undesirably wide variation in practice with respect to the development of unit plans or lesson plans, and evaluation and grading. Intramural programming, also, varies widely from one school to another. The practice of separating boys and girls in the various programs does not correspond with that usually recommended in the country, and in this area as in several others, there seems to be no single city policy.

It is recommended that the authority of the Director of Health, Physical Education, Athletics, and Safety be broadened to include the supervision of purchasing and the maintenance of equipment and facilities in his field. He should provide a direct consultative voice concerning the recruitment and selection of teachers and their assignment to schools. The present curriculum corresponds to what is usually offered in the schools of the country. While it is conventional in nature, and might be refreshed by the addition of some experimental elements, the only areas that require specific attention are: (a) provision of adapted or corrective physical education for those with physical limitations; (b) the improvement of evaluation and grading procedures in certain

of the schools; (c) the expansion of intramural opportunities to all students; and (d) greater emphasis on coeducational activities, and instruction and participation in dual or individual sports with a carryover potential.

Interscholastic Athletic Competition. The major program of interscholastic competition at present is provided for boys in the 14 academic and vocational high schools of the District. There are limited programs of interscholastic sports for boys in the junior high schools and for girls in the senior high schools.

Competition is scheduled in the four major sports in which all schools participate: football, basketball, baseball, track and field. It is also provided in five minor sports: cross-country, indoor track, golf, tennis, and swimming. The District is divided into leagues of seven teams each. The champion school from each of two leagues competes for the District championship. Teams may also compete in non-league play with members of the parochial league, private schools or schools in Maryland or Virginia.

The coaches of the major sports are qualified physical education teachers, and receive extra stipends for such work, ranging from $750 for the head coach of a major sport to $200 for those who direct certain after-school club activities. Interscholastic competition is governed by the supervising director of athletics. It is administered on the basis of a comprehensive guide or rules book, first developed in 1952 and revised in 1963. It matches the requirements of the National Federation of High School Athletics, and is stricter in some particulars.

The Director of Athletics works with an athletic council, composed of two principals and three coaches. Following a "Thanksgiving Day riot" in 1962, which began when one of the Washington high schools lost the District championship to one of the parochial schools, the school principals in Washington have taken a greater part in the governance of interscholastic athletics, and championship games take place now only between schools in the two leagues within the public school system.

Recommendations. Considerable friction has developed within the school system following the unfortunate events of 1962. At present, it is not clear where the responsibility for the general direction of the interscholastic competition lies, whether with the athletic director and his council, or with the school principals. Obviously, the school officials of Washington were alarmed and are determined that the occasion for such a disturbance will not be permitted to occur again. Their reaction to it, in the judgment of the task force, has left the authority for decisions concerning interscholastic activity somewhat confused. The 1963 revision of the rules book, if it is respected, seems to the task force to provide a sound basis for governing such a program.

More important is the fact that the athletic director is a relatively independent member of the Department of Health, Physical Education, Athletics and Safety. Perhaps the director of the department should act as an ex-officio chairman of the athletic council. The present arrangement, which tends to separate interscholastic athletics from the educational program in physical education, is educationally unsound and has been condemned in almost every school system in the country where it obtains. It is recommended that the two programs be closely articulated and coordinated.

The intramural program, already mentioned, and the interscholastic program for boys at the junior high school level and the girls at the junior and senior high school level could well be expanded. At present the benefits of these programs are limited to a small group of highly skilled participants. It is recommended that this program be expanded to include far more boys and girls.

Health Education. Health education has been a recognized part of the curriculum for all students since 1959. At the elementary school level, it is taught by the classroom teacher. At the junior high school level, there is one semester of instruction in the eighth grade, with classes meeting five times per week. Health education is a prescribed part of the curriculum at the senior high school level, with classes meeting twice a week. The curriculum guides prepared by the curriculum committee of the Deaprtment of Health, Physical Education, Athletics, and Safety are excellent, if conventional. These documents outline the fundamental learnings to be accomplished and suggest approaches and activities for teaching.

Staff. At the elementary school level, the quality of health instruction varies greatly, according to the interest and knowledge of the classroom teachers responsible for the program. At the junior and senior high school levels, health education is part of the teaching load of instructors who have been specifically trained in physical education, not in health education. While eight special health education teachers for the school year 1966-67 were recommended by the Superintendent of Schools for a pilot program in four junior high schools and one senior high school, the request was disapproved.

Adequate time is provided in the schedule for health education, but the actual allocation of time for this purpose varies greatly. In the junior high school, where the requirement is five periods a week, some schools arrange for four or even three sessions. In one school, health education occupies only a double period once a week.

At the high school level, where the requirement is two periods a week, it is offered only once a week in some schools. In others, it fills a solid block of time, nine to eighteen weeks long. In one high school, girls receive eighteen weeks of health instruction during the year, while boys receive only nine weeks. There are no city-wide testing programs in health education.

Recommendations. The curriculum guides are excellent documents which rank very well with those existing elsewhere in the United States. The supervisors and several of the teachers responsible for instruction appear to be capable and dedicated. A number of attempts have been made to develop pilot programs to improve instruction in health. The special need for concentrated attention to health instruction in the District is clearly understood. The development of the Webster School for Girls is evidence of this; it represents one of the earliest attempts to provide help and understanding for the unwed mother. The Cleveland School Project and experimental teaching or assembly programs such as those at Rabaut Junior High School or Dunbar High School, represent other attempts to innovate and improve in this field. The relationships between the school health department and the public health department in the District seemed good. In this respect, as in some others, the program of the District of Columbia is unusually strong.

With these strengths in mind, and on the basis of the observations already made, the task force recommends that the present organization of the Department of Health, PHysical Education, Athletics, and Safety should be expanded to allow for a separate Director for Health Education. If this were done, adequate supervision might be provided for each of the school levels that presently characterize Washington's educational organization. It is recommended that only fully trained and certified health educators should offer instruction in this field. These teachers should be given full-time assignments in health instruction and freed of other duties. Adequate, regular teaching rooms should be designated for health instruction, to permit the storing and use of the equipment necessary for this field, including projection equipment as well as models and other materials. There should be a uniform allotment of time for health education,

and it should be taught in a solid block of time. Efforts to coordinate health education and family life education should concern staff in both areas.

Driver Education. All high schools in Washington offer a driver education program, including both classroom and in-car instruction. Seventy-four percent of the eligible students (100 percent of the 15-year-olds in the system) were enrolled in Driver Education in the 1965-66 school year. In addition, approximately 340 students took training in special summer or Saturday classes.

Practices governing the admission of students to the driver education program vary from school to school and are determined by the individual principals. Students on all senior high school grade levels may be in the program. Driver education teachers apparently have little to do with the selection of students.

Students schedule driver education during a specified period, five days per week. The normal class size is twelve, divided into three groups of students. In-car instruction takes place every three or four days for each group. The total amount of practice driving done by each student is approximately four hours.

A team of 27 persons are presently teaching driver education in the high schools, with responsibility both for classroom and in-car instruction. The teachers all at present meet minimum license requirements, and are on a two-year probationary status. Driver education is closely supervised by the supervisor of driver education, who helps the assistant superintendent for personnel screen potential employes. The major responsibility for supervising the driver education program is with the supervising director of safety and driver education and the Department of Health, Physical Education, Athletics, and Safety. This supervisor is in addition coordinator of civil defense for the schools, liaison officer between the public schools and several community agencies concerned with traffic safety, the initiator and developer of an adult driver education program, and the person in charge of the safety education program in the schools.

Thirty automobiles are used for in-car instruction; 27 are in daily use, and 3 are kept in reserve. Fourteen new cars have been obtained on a free-loan basis from the Chrysler Corporation. The sixteen remaining cars are 1960 Fords owned by the schools; upkeep costs for these are relatively high. All the vehicles are equipped with dual control brakes, seat belts, rear and side view mirrors, and are regularly inspected by the motor vehicle department. All are insured, and their use is restricted to instructional purposes.

The materials available for classroom instruction in all the schools include psychophysical testing devices, magnetic traffic boards, textbooks, and the 16 mm Standard Oil film series. Most schools have at least one classroom which has been assigned for use exclusively by driver education classes. Normally, the rooms are small but adequate considering the small class size.

Recommendations. The recent addition of available funds (from the recent amendment to the District of Columbia Traffic Act) makes it possible to offer driver education to all students. An expansion of the Saturday and summer programs is now possible and should be undertaken.

It is recommended that policies governing the selective admission of students to driver education should be revised. Safeguards should be instituted to prevent the systematic exclusion of students who could profit from the course, such as those with poor grades. Driver education teachers should play a part in the selection process. Some schools have an inadequate supply of textbooks. Each driver education student should, of course, have access to his own text.

If the estimate of 3 hours and 50 minutes of average in-car practice for students is accurate, the present practice falls far below the national minimum standard of 6 hours. It is recommended that this time be increased to meet national standards.

Most of the teachers have had a limited amount of preparation in the field of driver education -- often only a single "short course." This is well below the amount of training required to insure adequate competence in a relatively specialized field. It is recommended that the teacher training be increased to meet national standards.

The present position of "supervising director of driver education" is crucial to the continued success and improvement of the program as a whole. During the past year, the supervisor has secured new vehicles; arranged for teacher preparation courses; seen that teachers meet minimal license requirements; initiated and administered the Saturday and summer programs; procured teaching aids and other equipment and conducted in-service programs for the teachers. It is recommended that the supervisor be given more decisive authority over the staffing of the schools in his area, as well as the right to review scheduling practices.

Relationship with the District Recreation Department. While some subjects in the schools are strictly internal matters, health, physical education, and recreation (especially the last) are functions of both the schools and the related public agencies. In this connection, the task force concluded that it would be well to examine the relationship between the District schools and the District Recreation Department.

The Recreation Department functions under a board composed of representatives designated by the Board of Commissioners of the District, the Capital Parks Service, and the Board of Education, plus four other members. The department performs District-wide functions formerly shared by the Department of Playgrounds within the District and the Washington Public Schools.

The Recreation Department operates a variety of outdoor facilities, including tennis courts and swimming pools, and will continue to take over other facilities recently operated by the National Park Service of the Department of Interior. However, the Recreation Department depends heavily on school buildings for operating its indoor and playground programs. At present, approximately 90 buildings throughout the District are used for afternoon and evening programs.

In general, the relationship is constructive, and the Director of the Recreation Department reports that his requests for use of the buildings are usually honored. There remain some problems:

1. Design of structures. In the older buildings, the rooms or special areas used for recreational purposes are not well grouped.

2. Charges for services. A problem arises from the relatively high cost of engineering and custodial services. Recreation programs do not use school buildings as heavily as regular school programs, but they pay equivalent hourly rates to the custodian, engineer, firemen, etc., plus an extra differential for evening programs. The cost of paper supplies also seems to be relatively high.

3. Availability of facilities. While school principals are usually cooperative with the Recreation Department concerning the use of the multi-purpose rooms and other public rooms during the evening, they sometimes complain that the buildings are misused.

4. Improved Coordination. From time to time, examples of duplication of facilities or other efforts occur. There is a plan to develop a large swimming pool for the Sharpe Elementary School, to serve orthopedically handicapped children. This will be immediately adjacent to a pool being developed for a school community center in the area.

In general, the relationship between the recreation department and the schools, while cordial, is not particularly intimate. The present good relationship sets the scene for a coordinated recreation program to serve youth in the schools and out of them. In a large urban area, where the city is the teacher in many ways, obviously all of the community agencies need to work hand-in-hand for those they serve.

L. The Cadet Corps

On May 23, 1967, the Washington High School Cadet Corps held its Eightieth Annual Competitive Drill under the eye of Major General Charles E. Johnson, Chief of Staff of the First United States Army as reviewing officer. Thus the Cadet Corps has a long history in the District. Two companies of cadets were organized at the Washington City High school (later Central High School) in the fall of 1862.

A Congressional act of 1907 providing for the Cadet organization reads as follows:

> Every male pupil in attendance at the high schools shall be admitted to and shall serve in the high school cadets unless excused from such service by the principal, on certificate of one of the medical inspectors of schools that he is physically disqualified for such service, or on the written request of his parent or guardian.

In February 1967 there were units of the Cadet Corps at 14 high schools, 11 senior and 3 vocational. Of the total 9,547 males eligible for enrollment, 6,857 or 71.8 percent were actually enrolled. Five schools (Bell, Chamberlain, Dunbar, Phelps, and Spingarn) had 100 percent enrollments. Wilson and Western were lowest with 19.5 and 28.5 percents, respectively.

The objectives for the program as pointed out in the Program of Instruction for the National Defense Cadet Corps, 3 September 1957 were:

a. To inculcate habits of orderliness and precision, to instill discipline and thereby respect for constituted authority, to develop leadership, to foster patriotism, and to encourage a high sense of personal honor and deportment.

b. To give the student elementary military training which will be of benefit to him, and of value to the Nation if and when he becomes a member of the Armed Forces.

c. To develop an appreciation of the Army in its role of national defense and to inform all students of the opportunities for service therein.

The program is described in Army Regulations 350-250, Education and Training, National Defense Cadet Corps (13 February 1958) as follows:

> The NDCC program is conducted in secondary schools. The Department of the Army provides equipment and training guidance to include a detailed program of instruction and supervision, to support prescribed training. The participating school and their students bear the costs of instructors, uniforms, and general support of the program.

The cost of uniforms, which are furnished by the students themselves, vary depending on whether they are redyed army surplus or tailor-made. Cadet officers may have additional expenses in buying necessary equipment. Some schools use a relatively inexpensive khaki uniform rather than the traditional cadet blue uniform which costs about $50 or more. Various plans are used to assist pupils who need help in purchase of uniforms. These include: personal exchanges of used uniforms, school operated uniform exchanges and school rental systems.

The curriculum for the NDCC includes the following subjects:

- Orientation and Instruction to Military Training
- Military Organization
- Weapons
- Individual Equipment
- Ceremonies and Inspections
- Map Reading and Use of Compass
- Elementary Communications
- Individual Training for Atomic Warfare
- Military Teaching Methods
- New Developments
- Principles of Leadership
- Courtesies, Customs, and Rules of Conduct
- Hygiene and First Aid
- Rifle Marksmanship
- Leadership, Drill, and Exercise of Command
- Field Sanitation
- Small Unit Tactics-Infantry
- Achievements and Traditions of the U. S. Army
- Branches of the Army
- Military Service -- Opportunities, etc.

All instructors are experienced officers of the Army, retired, reserve or National Guard.

As pointed out in a memorandum to principals from the assistant superintendents for the secondary schools (dated October 31, 1965), the values of the Cadet Corps are as follows:

> Benefits to be derived from military training are not confined to preparation for military service, although experience testifies to the fact that the youth with a background of such training has a much more satisfying period of adjustment to army life. The lessons learned in cadet training constitutes a valuable preparation for adult life. Close order drill teaches coordination, precision, posture, and discipline. Inspections emphasize the importance of cleanliness and personal appearance. Instruction, training, and practice in leadership inculcate a sense of responsibility. Ready and cheerful obedience to orders develops respect for constituted authority.
>
> A sense of civic responsibility and a feeling of being an important part of a worthwhile project are fostered. Every boy has an opportunity to become a member of the "team" and to succeed to such honors and rewards as his ability and industry deserve. As he performs his duties he takes part in public ceremonies which should inspire his patriotism. He has opportunities to serve his school, his city, and even his country when uniformed, disciplined cadets are required.

The cadet training courses may carry up to two and one-half units of the 16 required for the high school diploma and, should the cadet go to college, he can receive a full year's credit on the Senior R.O.T.C. program.

Until recently, the superintendents have viewed the District Appropriations Act of 1907 as being quite specific in its language, requiring that every boy be enrolled for three years of high school unless excused on the basis of a medical certificate or the parental request. The October 1965 memorandum repeated the direction to the principals that "under no circumstances should boys be given the impression that they are not automatically enrolled in Cadets and that all they need to do in order not to serve is to bring a written request from their parents that they be excused." This was modified in a memorandum dated March 23, 1967 from the Assistant Superintendent for Junior and Senior High Schools which announced a change in policy which altered that memorandum as follows:

1. Students are to be informed that they may be excused from Cadets upon the submission of a letter from their parents requesting that they be excused.

2. Such an excuse shall be in effect the remainder of the student's high school career.

3. No conference need to be held with the parents concerning this excuse.

The memorandum stressed that "it is of the utmost importance that all ninth grade students are made aware of this policy change."

In early 1966, the District examined the possibilities of establishing a Junior R.O.T.C. in place of the Cadet Corps. The two programs were compared in terms of conditions of enrollment, personnel provided, and the costs. In March 1966, the principals voted 10-4 against the changing over; the assistant superintendent in charge of vocational high schools recommended against changing, while the Assistant Superintendent for Junior and Senior high schools recommended converting the Cadet Corps into Junior R.O.T.C. The change did not take place.

No task force was given specific responsibility for analyzing the quality of the Cadet Corps program. Two task force chairmen did look at the program in terms of a focus of their assignments, vocational-technical education and extra-curricular activities. The chairman of the vocational-technical task force commented on the considerable time and effort given to the Cadet Corps. He observed that, "while this has some admirable qualities, it is clear that insofar as the vocational-technical program is concerned, the Cadet program is time consuming and to some extent a replacement of time and effort for other more useful study areas." The chairman was particularly critical of the Cadet Corps serving as a substitute for the physical education program at the vocational high schools. He urged instead that adequate gymnasiums and peripheral facilities be developed and a program of physical education be developed. The chairman of the task force on extra-curricular activities was concerned with the costs to the boys and the fact that this was a compulsory program using more than one-eighth of the students' academic program.

Considering the long history of the National Defense Cadet Corps -- a history which underscores major changes during the past few years -- it is recommended that the program be made extra-curricular rather than curricular, that the policy change which stresses the voluntary rather than the compulsory aspect of the program be made clearer and that the assigning of academic credit be sharply reduced or abandoned. Only if the Cadet Corps makes a clear and valid contribution to the total educational program of the boys can it be supported. The NDCC has its staunch supporters and detractors. What is needed now is an objective appraisal of the Cadet Corps as part of the boys' total educational experience to determine whether the goals and values once held are still appropriate with the District's present population.

M. Provisions for The Gifted[1/]

Honors classes have been discussed in Chapter 9 in connection with the track system. The instructional provisions are analyzed further in this section.

Provisions for gifted children in Washington, D. C. public schools commence at the fifth grade and continue through the twelfth grade via the Honors Program. For the system as a whole in 1966-67, approximately 3,800 or 3 percent of the total pupil population classified as Honors students.

The selection of teachers for Honors sections rests with the principal. General criteria have been established which include such characteristics as intellectual ability, enthusiasm, educational background, ability to communicate, independence and initiative. However, application of these criteria depends on the policies of each school. Principals pointed out that teachers for Honors classes are not required to have permanent licences, and, as a result, it is necessary to incorporate in-service education into the program.

Since each school is autonomous in determining program objectives and curriculum design, as might be expected, they vary widely in their provisions for the gifted. In fact, the term "program" is somewhat misleading since it implies wide acceptance throughout the school system and applies to a clearly defined target population. The Honors program in the District schools is a paper design which the principals may adopt in whole, in part, or not at all.

In 1966-67, the Honors program was being conducted in 28 Honors centers, beginning at the fifth grade. In some areas, such as parts of the northwest, enough students meeting Honors criteria were selected to warrant a self-sufficient center. In other areas, as many as 11 feeder schools contributed enough students for one center. The number of classes at junior and senior high schools varied considerably, as noted in Chapter 9.

An Honors curriculum study project was initiated in September 1959 and completed in 1962. The Committee's guidelines were quite broad and require added detail. Only a preliminary version of this report was prepared, and it apparently was not yet available to all teachers of the Honors classes. A curriculum evaluation committee was formed in March 1965 under the direction of the supervising director of the curriculum department, and its work has been suspended pending a decision regarding the track system.

Principals and teachers agree that there should be different programs for Honors groups, not just more of the same work. They seemed relatively satisfied with the curricula in mathematics and in science on the senior high school level, but not with those for English, social studies, or foreign languages.

There are apparently serious problems of articulation between various school levels. The Honors Study committee met once a month to iron out some of the difficulties but had suspended their meetings temporarily. As seen by the principals, the single most important need in the Honors program was provision of their schools with additional clerical aids and lay readers: "Central-city schools are running over with aids and we are desperate for help." Principals did not indicate how the aids would be utilized to enrich the program nor did they suggest the need for aids with special talents.

1/ Dr. Abraham J. Tannenbaum prepared the report on which this section is based.

Conclusions and Recommendations. The status of special provisions for the gifted must be reviewed at the administrative and instructional levels. It is axiomatic that, without mutual support of supervisors and teachers, the future of such programs is doubtful. Although special provisions for the gifted have been intimately involved with tracking, this need not be so. Enrichment is not an administrative device but an instructional conceptualization involving comprehensive curriculum planning. Provisions for the gifted can be designed without falling into the trap of debating the pros and cons of tracking.

Another problem in the District schools is the idea that Honors courses should be viewed as electives or luxuries, rather than imperatives. Curricula for the gifted are not planned with the precision and attention to sequence as are programs for the non-gifted. Much of the enrichment originates with teacher interests rather than with an overall basic scheme. The impression left with the observers is that too much of what is done for the gifted is on an ad hoc, fragmented basis. Persons interviewed had conflicting ideas about the values of programs for the gifted. On one hand, they were convinced that exceptionally bright children cannot be as stimulated and challenged in the regular classrooms as in special classes, while, at the same time, they were apprehensive about separating highly able children from their less able peers.

Some of the teachers in the Honors track seemed well chosen. They demonstrated exceptional skill and resourcefulness and took deep professional pride in their work. However, whatever enrichment has been planned for these special classes derived more from the special insight and talents of these teachers than from guidance from the curriculum committee. Some teachers urged a pre-designed structure so that enrichment would become a standard provision for the gifted rather than a luxurious bonus to the regular system-wide course of study to which they are presently held.

Criteria for admitting pupils to special classes for the gifted are, at best, imprecise with the inevitable danger of overlooking those who deserve to be selected and of selecting those who should not be included. Part of the difficulty stems from the fact that some pupils show outstanding ability in one or two content areas which are not challenged in the regular classroom but fail to demonstrate high general potentials to qualify them for admission to the Honors classes.

Recently, SCAT and STEP tests have been substituted for the Otis Intelligence tests as screening devices for selecting youngsters for Honors programs. At the secondary level, guidance counselors meet with ninth graders and their parents to orient them to the Honors programs. Some principals report that parents in higher socioeconomic neighborhood schools pressure to have their children placed in Honors programs while those in lower-income areas worry that the work prevents their children from taking after-school employment.

Criteria for admitting children to special programs for the gifted ought to be reviewed carefully by the school psychologists and university consultants. Giftedness in the District does not mean the same as in other communities. For example, were Washington to decide to separate its top five percent of students at a given grade level on the basis of standardized measures, their cut-off points would be lower than the national 95 percentile since the city-wide norms are lower. Special enrichment should take into account the norms for the City and the individuals who deviate from these norms regardless of how they would be rated in other communities.

The current Honors classes are comprised of children identified for their general superiority in academic areas. Selection is based on achievement and aptitude scores plus teacher ratings. In addition, the District should identify children who possess

specific aptitudes, even if they are not judged gifted by general academic standards. If the program could embrace both academic and non-academic talents, a broader screening program would bring a larger slice of the pupil population under the umbrella of special provisions for the gifted and the talented and would lead to a broader range of special curriculum offerings.

To plan a more permanent and articulated curriculum for the gifted, it is recommended that a cohesive plan be adopted for planning curricular scope and sequence for the gifted and talented, training teachers to translate the plan into action, and periodically reviewing the offerings for revision and refinement. Such a comprehensive plan should take into account the need for differential development of talents, some manifesting themselves early and others later. Waiting until fifth grade to begin making special provisions may be too late for some talents and some children.

Because of the sustained interest in the gifted over the past dozen years, many school systems, including Washington, have published bulletins describing their special programs for the gifted. These ought to be reviewed carefully and systematically in order to avoid duplication of pioneering work. Much of the material may be uninspired but some of it is valuable enough to warrant adaptation in Washington. Even though some rich ideas can be gleaned from curriculum bulletins developed elsewhere, the curriculum model in Washington should be designed by its own staff for its own school population and with its particular educational objectives. This is no less true in planning for the gifted than in planning for the general population. Such a curriculum model might be fashioned from the following postulates:

1. A program for the gifted is not intended as a means of creating an intellectual elite. Instead, it is part of an effort to foster educational equality by challenging all children to the limit of their abilities.

2. Since the general curriculum for Washington was designed to meet that that city's broad educational objectives, it constitutes the minimum essentials for all students capable of mastering it, including the gifted. This implies a common core of learning experiences for both the gifted and the average child.

3. The pupils designated as gifted constitute the pool from which the most capable minds in various productive fields eventually will emerge. By their very nature, these pupils are capable of mastering more curriculum content and more profound learning concepts than their peers.

4. Achievement standards for the gifted should be determined on the basis of curriculum designed for them, even though its content exceeds that of the general curriculum. This means that subject matter required only of the gifted is <u>not</u> "elective" or "extra-curricular".

The District might consider a two-dimensional curriculum model, one dimension denoting standard and supplementary content areas and the second representing the adjustment of these content areas to fit the special needs and capabilities of the gifted. The design is in the form of a grid in which not all cells need be filled. In fact, different cells might be filled for different gifted students, depending upon their special aptitudes and interests.

Content Areas	Content Adjustment				
	Telescoped Common Core	Expanded Basic Skills and Concepts	Prescribed Augmentation	Teacher-designed Augmentation	Out-of-School Augmentation
Language Arts and Literature					
Science					
Math					
Social Studies					
Arts					
Music					
Supplementary Area 1					
Supplementary Area 2					

Language Arts and Literature, Science, Math., Social Studies, Arts, and Music are standard fare for all academic curricula, the basic foundation in a curriculum for the gifted.

Supplementary Areas refers to subject matter not always touched at the pre-college or pre-high school level. Depending upon the school system, these include such courses as foreign language, sociology, psychology, economics, astronomy, and geology. Their importance is self-evident and at least some of these should be included in a program for the gifted who are capable of studying them at a relatively early age.

Telescoped Common Core denotes no change in the content of the general curriculum but in the time spent in its coverage. The gifted are rapid learners and should cover the common core of some (but not necessarily all) subject areas in briefer time periods than less gifted peers.

Expanded Basic Skills and Concepts refers to tools of learning not covered in the general curriculum which are necessary for advanced work. These are the fundamentals that scholars use to advance knowledge in their respective fields. In the language arts are included such basics as general semantics, written expression, reading and listening comprehension of complex verbal stimuli through various structured media (e.g., drama, criticism, personal essay, poetry). In science, it is the scientific method including hypothesis building, experimental design with its necessary controls, and inference derivation. In social studies, it is the binding together of factual elements into profound relationships. A systematic mastery of these tools and strategies is of major importance to young scholars in the various content areas.

Prescribed Augmentation is the expansion of learning requirements laterally to include exposure to many more aspects of the same material from various primary and secondary sources. Supplementary study of related content is important for advanced consumption and creation of knowledge.

Teacher-designed Augmentation reflects the individual teacher's interests and refers to subject matter devised by him rather than by a curriculum committee. One teacher might have special competence in botany, another in journalism, and another in law. Each will prepare units of study to share this knowledge with his gifted pupils.

Out-of-School Augmentation is community reinforcement of classroom efforts. Depending upon special skills and interests, the gifted pupils might be assigned to "sit at the feet" of local writers, scientists, physicians, attorneys and university teachers. Assisting them in their work could be both enriching and inspiring if planned carefully.

These guidelines make no reference to special tracking, an administrative device that neither adds to enrichment or detracts from it. Ultimately, it is the scope and sequence of learning content that determine the quality of education for the gifted. Once the school system has determined precisely what this scope and sequence will be, it should then turn to the question of how best to implement these goals administratively. The guidelines presented here are applicable both in the regular classroom and in special classes for the gifted.

Ironically, concern for the disadvantaged and for racial balance has triggered opposition to what had become established and accepted practices for the gifted. Notably, special provisions for the gifted and especially special groupings have become a prime target for attack on the basis of alleged "discrimination. Identificational procedures, particularly those involving standardized intelligence tests, have been condemned as being discriminatory against the poor and culturally different. Stripped of polemics, the hard-nut question is basically one of how to provide for the wide range of individual differences found in any school population. Having known for some time that identical experiences do not provide equal opportunities, the problems of individualization and differentiation of instruction have continued to concern program planners. With respect to both the gifted and the disadvantaged, the perennial question persists: "What sorts of education will best educate?" The provisions for the gifted and the talented have not been well conceived or implemented. The able youngsters in the District's population deserve better.

N. Concluding Comments

As has been pointed out earlier, the District Schools faced a two-pronged challenge: providing massive remediation of existing learning difficulties for those who are now in school and designing development and compensatory programs for the thousands of children who will be entering school in the years ahead. Put another way, because no model exists, the District must develop curricula and programs appropriate to the needs of its urban population, large numbers of whom are educationally disadvantaged and not achieving. It must fully exploit the resources of the city as a learning laboratory.

A limited notion of compensatory education which represents doing "more of the same harder" is hardly likely to dent the problem. New concepts of urban education are demanded -- new policies; different arrangements of time, organization and space; more effective deployment of staff; an extended role for the school in the community; a reshaped curriculum; augmented instructional resources; and different kinds of supportive services.

It has been common for many years to speak of "meeting children's needs," of "starting with children where they are" and of "providing for individual differences." Yet, urban school organization, curriculum, materials and personnel differ little from patterns of schooling which have emerged over the past half century. Whether a child is growing up in the inner city or in the rural South, whether he goes to school in an ancient brick fortress or a glass-walled building surrounded by green lawns, whether he is a city-dweller or a suburbanite, certainly affect his experiences, his cognitive and affective development and the individual differences which must be provided for by educational programs.

Large numbers of city children are obviously not responding to the conventional curricula and the educational programs now available. Teachers leave college and universities with preparatory programs which they soon find do not work in the inner-city classroom: teaching strategies which brought an adequate response from motivated, middle-class youngsters are ineffective with many disadvantaged learners. The consequences of deprecatory self-images, modest aspirations, poor motivation -- all affect what is learned and how it is learned. The poor scholastic performance of the disadvantaged raises pointed questions about the educational relevance of what is being taught.

Education for the disadvantaged is not the whole of urban education -- the ranges of individual differences within the city population run the entire gamut -- but current efforts to develop compensatory programs may have helped sharpen the search for appropriate programs for all. The focus of compensatory education is providing children with the cognitive and affective resources equal to those of more advantaged children in dealing with the complexities of urban life. Such programs are presumably designed to compensate for resources largely undeveloped because of lack of experience and education which were not available. However, what is needed is not simply a filling in of gaps so that disadvantaged children will then be reached by existing practices but rather that different kinds of programs be developed. Instead, the focus must be on what kind of educational experience is most appropriate to what these children are and to what society is becoming.

The District, supported by federal as well as private foundation funds, has developed a number of compensatory programs. Title I, EASEA, and Impact Aid have made available over $6 million for such programs. Many Model School Division programs (i.e., staff development, curriculum improvement, classroom organization, cultural enrichment, urban teaching, school assistants, pre-school and community school) are aimed at reach-

ing the inner-city population of the Cardozo area. The Language Arts Program, the Urban Language Study Program, the Reading Clinics, Pre-School and Parent Orientation Programs are just a few of the projects operating in the District to provide for the disadvantaged.

Across the nation, programs for the nation have already begun to fall into relatively few patterns, including these:

1. Pre-school and early childhood programs aimed at compensating for early experiential deficits, especially those of language and cognitive development.

2. Reassessment and development of curriculum content to facilitate acculturation in an urbanized, technological society.

3. Remedial programs in the basic skills areas.

4. Enrichment projects to overcome cultural impoverishment, enhance motivation, and "widen the horizons" of pupils from depressed areas.

5. Special guidance programs to extend counseling and therapy services to disadvantaged pupils and their parents. Parent education -- which interprets the educational needs and potential of disadvantaged children to their parents -- is gaining significance as a guidance function.

6. Individual and small-group tutoring programs with professionals, paraprofessionals and volunteers of all kinds to enhance the individual's self-concept as well as provide him with personal remedial assistance.

7. Lenthening of school day and year and extension of activities into the community and neighborhood.

8. Pre-service and in-service teacher training to deepen teachers' understandings of the life styles and growth patterns of children from depressed areas; also, to test and to improve teaching strategies and methods which might work with low-income children.

9. Development of materials to involve the disadvantaged child, to extend his cognitive development and to provide needed remedial assistance.

10. Work-study and continuation programs now involve exploration, on-the-job training and subsidized work experience. Continuing education, especially for the 16-21 year olds has resulted in new kinds of programs for schools.

11. Additional staff are being assigned to schools in depressed areas and staff utilization patterns are being adapted. Class-size and pupil-teacher ratios are being reduced. As many as a dozen "special service personnel" are being used to augment regular faculty positions in schools with the disadvantaged pupils.[1/]

1/ Passow, A. H., "The Gifted and the Disadvantaged: Some Curricular Insights," in Precedents and Promise in the Curriculum Field, edited by H. F. Robison. New York: Teachers College Press, 1966. p.33.

A cataloging of District programs would disclose many which would fit into the patterns listed above. Some evaluation and assessment of the programs have been undertaken (particularly with respect to the Title I, EASEA, programs since this is required by the act). However, in the District as elsewhere, there is no articulated, integrated, sequential program but rather a series of isolated projects. Nor are the ends sought always clearly defined.

In a critique of compensatory education across the nation, Gordon and Wilkerson observed:

> For all their variety of means, the programs have generally suffered one fundamental difficulty -- they are based on sentiment rather than fact .... The great majority of the programs are simply an attempt to "do something" about these problems. Their stated aims are usually couched in unarguable generalities.... The urge to do something has been so compelling that many of the programs have been designed without grounding in any systematic study of ends and means.1/

While this observation is certainly not applicable to all of the District's efforts to provide compensatory programs for the disadvantaged, there are many examples of projects for which the criticism is valid. There is no question, however, that the absence of a strong research and development division has affected program development in this area as well as in others. The dearth of evaluative data for most programs and the lack of attention to such assessments as have been made, have seriously limited the value of the disparate activities which together constitute compensatory education in the District.

It is essential that compensatory programs deal with the basic structure of the educational enterprise as a whole -- with content, sequence, methods, resources, staffing, relationships, climate, etc. While specific projects may not deal with all of these elements, their general relevance to the broad objectives must be clear. The task educators face is not simply that of bringing the disadvantaged child to the point where he is "equal" to his middle-class counterpart so that he will then achieve "at grade level" -- rewarding as such achievement may seem. The goal must be one of devising educational programs which will unlock potential of all kinds to the fullest. Such programs will be concerned with attitudes, values, self-concepts and commitment to continued growth as well as with knowledge and intellectual growth.

An appropriate urban education will be concerned with compensatory education in the sense of overcoming deficits in experience and knowledge. It will provide activities and experiences in such areas as visual and auditory discrimination, concept formation, ego-development, motivation and general urban acculturation and orientation -- not on a shotgun approach to all, but rather on the basis of carefully designed diagnosis and assessment of each child's developmental needs. Such an urban education will provide a general education with particular attention to nurturing individual talents of all kinds. Finally, it will attend to the urban world of its learners -- the vast and complex problems as well as the opulent resources. The programs will have to focus on helping all students learn to live effectively in the complex, changing urban society. Appropriate curricula will need to help learners cope with the phenomena of racial and socio-economic isolation as part of the District's educational environment. Teachers will have to select experiences and materials and use adults and community resources in ways which will compensate for such segregation.

1/ Gordon, E. E. and Wilkerson, D. A., Compensatory Education for the Disadvantaged. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1966. p.158.

The District has undertaken a good many projects aimed at the disadvantaged population. They vary in quality of design, clarity of purpose and effectiveness with which they are implemented. With rare exceptions, they are unrelated to one another or to the program as a whole. The District population, while containing a large number of disadvantaged children, also contains large numbers who are not from impoverished environments. An urban education must provide for all learners opportunities for successful achievement. It is recommended that the problems of developing an appropriate urban curriculum be given the highest priority for program planning and that the Division of Planning, Research and Innovation undertake coordination and direction of planning efforts which will yield a model design.

Chapter 12

Curriculum Development, Innovation and Planning[1/]

The problem of curriculum in any educational institution is basically a design or planning problem, in which educational environments and situations are shaped to satisfy certain values and to achieve specified or implied goals. Designing or planning occurs at many different levels: the classroom, the school building, the school system and beyond, in the immediate and broader community. Each of the task forces looking at instruction made observations and presented recommendations regarding needs in their fields. This task force focused on the building and school system levels as well as linkages with the immediate and broader community in an effort to interpret and analyze the designing process, its goals and its substance.

Curriculum Designing

Almost universally in the District schools, curricular design or planning is synonymous with course-of-study development. At the central office level, major responsibility for elementary curricular design rests with the Assistant Superintendent for Elementary Schools. His staff includes the Director of Elementary Supervision and Instruction, a line officer, six supervising directors and 27 supervisors. Secondary curricular design has been the responsibility of 11 supervising directors assigned to various subject fields, operating under the Deputy Superintendent. Increasingly, various kinds of elementary personnel, frequently called specialists, have been added to the staffs of supervising directors who now operate on a K-12 basis. This often brings them into direct conflict with the Director of Elementary Supervision and Instruction.

The Director of Curriculum, a staff officer reporting to the Deputy Superintendent, is in charge of Educational Media, Library Science, and a Resources Center. The Director of Curriculum has only two regular professional employees on her staff. Although they may be invited to cooperate in aspects of curriculum designing, they are primarily editors of course-of-study bulletins and writers or editors of other miscellaneous publications the Superintendent requests.

Among the various assistant superintendents who also build curriculum are the Assistant Superintendent of the Model School Division and the Assistant Superintendents for elementary and junior high schools, who also administer ESEA, Title I, and Impact Aid, as well as a group of functions categorized as personnel, scheduling and coordination. The Assistant Superintendent for General Research, Budget and Legislation has done much to launch federally supported programs and maintains control through the work of outside evaluators, as well as through budgeting and staff positions.

In summary, responsibility for the educational program is badly diffused, with several individuals claiming authority. At the secondary level, there is no overall coordination and planning; at the elementary level, those which have existed are fast disappearing. Articulation between elementary and secondary levels is accidental, not systematic. The Deputy Superintendent, too, with major responsibility in this area, is too busy to attempt coordination. All of this is complicated by conflicts among various central office personnel, and between central office personnel and principals. Problems of organization rate so high on the "gripe list" of a large number of individuals that they are a major stumbling block to efficiency and high morale. The existing organization obscures the power structure, real or hidden from observers and staff, alike.

1/ Professor Gordon N. Mackenzie prepared a report on which this chapter is based.

Building Level Responsibility. Task force questions relating to curricular development or improvement at the building level almost invariably led to a discussion of courses-of-study. At the elementary level, the allocation was divided between the supervisors, who specialize in how to teach, and the supervising directors and their staffs, in what to teach. The secondary schools derive major guidelines from supervising directors in various subject fields. Asked about innovations or special curricular projects at the building level, staff revealed that they occasionally adapted program, time allotment or content in response to special student needs. In these efforts, the principal reported the cooperation of someone from the central office staff. Often this was someone in the operating divisions rather than a special instructional person under the direction of the Deputy Superintendent.

Actually, there is little time or specialized personnel for leadership on curriculum matters in either the elementary or secondary schools. Elementary teachers are sometimes organized by grade groups and meet with the principal or an elected or appointed chairman to discuss individual or group problems. In the secondary schools, the department chairmen serve without time adjustment or extra pay. Their functions vary considerably. Many order and dispense books and supplies; represent their groups at city-wide meetings; relay communications from the supervising director or his staff, or from the principal, to the teachers and their respective departments. Some chairmen engage in activities such as conducting department meetings, developing and scoring examinations, or assisting new teachers.

While the principals and department heads have, in general, a favorable attitude towards central office personnel, they differ in their appraisals of the curricular guides and the general helpfulness of various specialized personnel. There was a feeling that the central office is reasonably flexible about holding schools to course-of-study requirements but that building units have neither time nor personnel to modify guidelines. In some instances, the courses-of-studies are either not available or are more than 20 years old. In others, the textbooks set the direction.

Most inadequacies appeared to center around the rigidity of the courses or "Direction Finders" at the elementary school; the unsuitability of guides for the slow, disadvantaged or other special groups; the dearth of suitable texts or other printed and audio-visual materials. Sometimes, the fault stemmed from the timing of the delivery, the quantity available, or the suitability of supplementary materials. Sometimes, building facilities were not conducive to the use of audio or visual aids.

The Curriculum Department. Hidden away in the school system organization and geographically isolated in the northwest section of the city is the Department of Curriculum, Audio-Visual and Library Services. Begun in 1955 with a staff of one, the Department of Curriculum now has three professionals: a director and two supervising directors. From time to time this staff is supplemented by others, usually curriculum writers on special assignment. The original "branch office," the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, has added an audio-visual library and now has a supervising director and an assistant director. This department is located in another part of the city. The Department of Library Science has a supervising director and an assistant director. The fact that these three groups, organizationally related, operate separately, indicates the concept underlying the department's function.

With only three professional staff members, the Curriculum Department "administrates the development and dissemination of curriculum for the entire school system... gives leadership and coordination to the staff officers in charge of subject fields... has gone into the publishing business...now publishes printed bulletins, brochures and charts in all subject fields and on all levels...serves as an Instructional Materials Center for the city...."

In its 1965 report, the department claimed to have 126 curriculum publications available. This number exceeds those on various official lists and covers a variety of other publications. The department distributed approximately 142,800 curriculum publications to elementary personnel, 33,250 to secondary personnel and 140,000 brochures to parents.

The department suffers from both a lack of authority and a shortage of staff. Operating as it does on good will and borrowed time, it cannot hope to be a very effective organization. Quite naturally, supervising directors do not wish to relinquish responsibility for couse-of-study development, even though they are not equipped to handle the whole task. In general, they have lacked the resources for writing aspects of bulletin preparation but they do not usually ask nor expect the curriculum department to get such activities under way. Consequently, there are frequent battles to keep materials up to date. There is also a form of compromise through the issuance of other than official materials.

The curriculum department is primarily a production center for a course-of-study manuals, for distribution of curriculum publications and for interpretation and implementation of new bulletins. Further, it helps to structure appropriate committees and to secure their official designation by the superintendent.

Planning the Production of Curriculum Materials. To identify needed materials, the curriculum department confers with the elementary supervisory staff and the supervising directors. Requests for such materials may come from officers, teachers, the public or other interested and influential groups. Actual preparation is signalled by the setting up of two committees:

1. An advisory committee frequently consisting of four to six persons who the line and staff officers recommend because of interest, experience and availability. Members may be school officers, teachers, community leaders, university personnel or representatives of national or regional organizations.

2. A production committee usually consisting of the supervising director of a subject area and three to twelve teachers or others representing the same subject area. Members of this committee are usually nominated by the supervising director of the subject area involved, on the basis of the willingness of the individuals to work, as well as their interest, experience and ability.

Members of both advisory and production committees are then recommended by the Director of the Curriculum Department to the Superintendent of Schools for approval and official appointment.

Usually an advisory committee meets two or three times during the developmental stage to sketch guidelines, general objectives and procedures and assorted suggestions for the work of the production committee. A production committee may meet three or four times to plan its work, make assignments to each member (for example, prepare the bibliography or write a chapter) and set a deadline for submission of manuscript to the committee chairman. A production committee usually meets in the office of the supervising director involved. Teachers on such committees are usually released from class for meetings. The curriculum department seeks to assist the production committee in implementing the structure of the curriculum, stating specific goals, outlining methods and procedures, defining content, and recommending materials and references. Members of the production committees usually do the necessary study, gathering of material,

writing, editing and proofing on their own time after school, over weekends and holidays.

When the budget permits, one teacher may be released from his post to work full-time on a production for three or four months. In some cases, teachers have been employed and paid extra summer salary through funds from NDEA or other federal programs. Consultants expert in a particular area (such as university professors or subject specialists), may be engaged for a short-time curricular project on a fixed fee basis (e.g., $50 per day or $200 for the entire project). Members of the advisory and production committees are paid no fees and are seldom given time off.

Once the curriculum material has been assembled and edited by the chairman or by a teacher designated for the purpose, it is brought to the Curriculum Department for the final editing. Actually, since the Department tends to be critical of the quality of the materials, its staff often modifies the format and refines materials and organication. The production committees, in turn, sometimes dislike the treatment and processing of their materials by the Department. With its limitations of staff and specialized skills, the Department often undergoes long delays at this stage of processing. The Department arranges for printing or mimeographing, forwards new publications to the Superintendent and the Board of Education for study and approval, after which they distribute them to the public.

In practice, various supervising directors seem to be adding staff quietly or reassigning greater responsibility for bulletin production to some of their recently enlarged staff components.

While there is a routine for creating curriculum guides, it needs two support systems: one for evaluation of needs in various areas and one for policies to shape the content and method of developing and testing various guides.

Curriculum Publications. The Department listed 126 publications in its 1965 report. A publication titled The Amidon Plan and its supplementary materials do provide a comprehensive guide for an elementary school program. However, the Amidon Plan itself appeared to be crumbling under the additions of subject area specialists. While there were many complaints about the guides, especially for the pupils of lower ability, the attacks (internal and external) upon the track system were lowering the popularity of the guides. Many publications are in no sense curriculum guides or courses of study, but merely tract reactions to current problems and dissatisfactions. The publications, other than those associated with the Amidon Plan, are irregular and uneven, suggesting an absence of overall planning or sequence.

During 1966-1967, an Educational Resources Center was created as an ESEA, Title III Project. This was to be a substantial effort to assign specialized staff for in-service educational leadership and for improved production of curricular publications. Difficulties marred the academic year, blocking the Resources Center from little more than a limited start on in-service education and some cooperative work with the museums. Most staff had not been appointed. While the Center may be able to resolve its many serious problems, it does not appear likely now to smooth out the difficulties in the curricular designing process.

Evaluating Curricular Designing. In reviewing the history of course-of-study development and curricular bulletins, one finds that the early versions stressed change, new programs and guidance for teachers in implementation. Experience with these early guidebooks led to discontent at their limited impact. To counteract undue conservatism, curriculum leaders introduced a variety of modifications. Courses of study were often

built as resource units, rich in teaching ideas, such as recognizing local adaptations of standard courses. Teacher involvement in construction of courses of study, advocated and extensively used in the 1930's, is no longer a popular practice nationally.

Yet, for many reasons, course-of-study development has persisted. In some instances, they are not much more than public relations documents. (The District receives requests for courses of study from schools throughout the United States and foreign countries.)

Any new curriculum guide should reflect recent and sound research findings relative to social needs, to the specific subject field under consideration, to the learning and teaching processes, to human growth and development and to curricular and school organization. In the District, some guides including those of mathematics, physical education and science, have incorporated research, but most bulletins apparently pay scant attention in the preparation.

In the District, (as anywhere), new ideas are likely to be not brand new inventions but rather local adaptations of promising imports. Research suggests that completely new inventions usually come from outside a host school system. Further, "completely new" solutions are rare. The designing process of the development stage is usually home-grown, perhaps helped by consultants, and is typically inhibited by time limitations, the conditions under which the production committees work, inadequate staff provisions and shortages of resources. Evaluation of curriculum guides at the development stage is exceptional, although some informal evaluation occasionally occurs at later stages.

Curriculum guides are distributed to teachers via school-mail channels. Little attention is given to orienting teachers to their use or to adequate study of what is being called for in the way of new behavior in the guide. Some attention has been given to introduction of new teachers to the course of study in an effort to maintain the accepted program and operation or the institutionalized new programs.

Curricular guides may advance program stability and aid teachers. The guides in the District are aimed at coordinating and directing the program through clarifying goals and objectives and detailing reasonable segments of content and time. Guides may also indicate the values prized by a school system. These values may relate to both ends and means. A school system may seek to cultivate "democratic behavior," a "knowledge of the structure of the disciplines," a discovery method of learning, individualized instruction and a close relationship between school curriculum and the community. Disagreement over values in some of the courses of study is not rare. Reviewing curriculum design as part of course-of-study development processes in the District, it would appear that:

1. Courses of study focus primarily on the subject matter and time allocations. They vary considerably, seldom seeking to cater to individual differences beyond those of the tracking system. Unfortunately, they do not serve the disadvantaged groups well, least of all at the secondary school level. Courses for the more able students are not outstanding. Teaching aids, valuable strategies for individualization, organization (aside from tracking), and classroom climate are neglected.

2. To exploit guides and educational planning, linkages must be built between the guide producers and users on the one hand, and the suppliers of resources on the other. All of the major ingredients the school curriculum needs exist outside of the classroom setting. New knowledge in various disciplines, in human growth and development, in learning, in the social relations and new educational technology are researched and produced (often through private enterprise) outside the individual school. Some

mechanism is needed for writing data and users. Many teachers train professionally outside the District shcools. Under the stimuli of a growing educational system, increased financial support for education and a revolution in the communications and the electronic fields, strong organization can improve the synchronization of essential inputs to the educational process and the technical outputs for program development.

3. There are no policies for systematic and periodic review and evaluation of the curriculum designing process and of the courses of study. This is a result partly of chaotic organization, and partly the inadequate staffing of the Curriculum Department.

4. The curricular publications are often quite good technically, but the absence of effective policies on content and scope yields great unevenness to the quality of their educational contribution.

5. Course-of-study development relates only casually to other curricular designing activities, such as in-service education, supervision and innovation.

6. At the building level, the principal is the authority on modifying course-of-studies guides, but lacks specialized help for the task. Usually, he has co-opted full-time classroom teachers or overburdened supervising directors; however, the appointment of subject specialists is a healthy new trend.

7. Curriculum guide preparation is viewed in a very limited and traditional sense. Present policies for guide development do not draft sufficient expert knowledge and skill to answer the heavy demands of today's education. Present policies and provisions for staff make it extremely difficult to secure the range of research and subject matter competencies needed. The central office staff might play the role of initiator of activities, recruiter of personnel for the research and development phases, and evaluator of outside research.

8. Meaningful courses of study should reflect fully the values which dominate the school system and its supporting community. While good evidence is not available on this point, there is some basis to believe that there exist serious conflicts with respect to both educational means and ends. The result is a school system that behaves like an immobilized centipede, able to react either in many small directions or irregularly, in totality - but incapable of planning and correcting a major thrust.

In-Service Education

In Washington, most in-service education stresses one of five aspects of the task: (1) removing deficiencies in initial preparation of teachers; (2) correcting teachers' individual weaknesses; (3) serving individual staff members' interests and needs; (4) maintaining the ongoing program in a coordinated, efficient manner; and (5) preparing staff members to cope with changes in knowledge and/or with innovations in the program.

Responsibility for in-service education in the District is widely diffused throughout the system. The Rules of the Board of Education place responsibility for in-service education with the Dean of the District of Columbia Teachers College. A new Office of Staff Development in the Personnel Department is taking on some (not yet defined) in-service functions. Still to be grafted into the system is the new Educational Resources Center, supported by Title III funds, which may have ten or more staff members and substantial financial and material resources available for in-service education. It anticipated training more than 2000 teachers in "new education media." However, as with curricular designing, in-service responsibilities are claimed and performed by the

Deputy Superintendent, several assistant superintendents, directors, supervising directors, principals and the District of Columbia's Teachers College.

At the elementary level, in-service education has been systematized. The Assistant Superintendent for Elementary Education, working through the Director of Elementary Supervision and Instruction, conducts early orientation meetings for new staff in late August and early September. In addition, four types of demonstration lessons are produced in the designated schools: (1) city-wide demonstrations for new teachers (700 participated in 1965-1966); (2) demonstration days (available at the request of individual teachers or for teachers sent by principals or supervisors); (3) small group demonstrations arranged for special groups of teachers; (4) special purpose demonstrations, often staged by commercial companies. In addition, there are other lectures and miscellaneous gatherings. Considerable use is made of courses at the D. C. Teachers College, with school system personnel as instructors.

At the secondary level, the Assistant Superintendent directs an annual orientation program, as well as city-wide meetings of teachers. He has arranged with colleges in the area to open special courses for teachers. While the D. C. Teachers College also assists, it does not offer certain advanced degree courses in some subject areas.

The various directors and supervising directors engage in a wide range of in-service activities at both the elementary and secondary levels focusing on course-of-study requirements, weaknesses of teachers or new programs. Use is made of consultants from commercial companies and government agencies to provide lectures and field trips.

Among the other agencies that conduct extensive in-service programs are: the Reading Clinic; Phonovisual; Great Cities Language Arts Project; Project 370; School Community Action Research in Communication Skills; and the Model School Division. The last three probably have the most dynamic, well-organized and forward-looking programs in the District. The Language Arts Program, in operation for five years, has developed a coordinated program of orientation, in-service education, supervision, materials production and adaptation for the schools and teachers involved. A more recent in-service training program, supported by Title IV, Civil Rights Act of 1964, was initiated in January 1967 dealing with special educational problems occasioned by desegregation and de facto segregation in the schools.

While principals, the official instructional leaders in their buildings, are expected to conduct in-service activities, they are generally too busy for this, except with a few new teachers. In very few buildings had principals organized their staffs for continued maintenance of a quality program.

In the main, in-service education is for teachers. At the elementary level, directors, assistant principals and new principals attend monthly meetings. There are some in-service meetings for supervisors and a few directors and supervisors do reach their own staff groups. Yet the leadership group is not systematically covered by in-service programs.

Directors of in-service activity recognize its importance and give low marks to present programs. Weaknesses are frequently attributed to shortages of leadership, funds, staff time and motivation. Questionnaire responses from teachers indicated general disillusionment with the in-service programs with few activities being viewed as really helpful. Briefly, some of the major problems can be summarized as follows:

1. No overall, coordinated program deals realistically with the five aspects of in-service education listed earlier. Washington, D. C. has special and unique problems

relating to each of these, which require special attention to the problems of induction and continuing education of its professional staff.

2. Hampering the many able and professionally minded staff members are large segments of personnel who are not equal to their tasks. Further, a climate for professional development is invisible in some areas and buildings. Many teachers seem to lack confidence that Washington's schools can solve their problems.

3. Mobility of staff members, especially among the more able, appears to be high. Many of those who profit from in-service opportunities are quickly moved to leadership positions. Certainly, advancement opportunities are desirable, but ways must be found to keep good teachers in contact with learners.

4. Teachers so rarely plan in-service education that too much is done for them, rather than with them.

5. The funds to mount an adequate in-service program simply are not there. As will be recommended later, major new allocations are needed.

6. Leadership training is a large gap which merits early repair.

The District presently carries on six types of in-service training: staff committee meetings, curriculum study workshops, lectures, demonstration lessons, observations of other teachers and D. C. Teachers College in-service classes. A questionnaire response by the elementary school teachers indicated that they considered the demonstrations, observations, curriculum study and staff committee meetings as helpful and also the most popular. The Teachers College courses were apparently perceived as "helpful" by their former students. The same respondents criticized the lectures. The junior high school teachers reported participating in many of the same kinds of activities as the elementary teachers but, by and large, their reactions were unenthusiastic. Demonstrations, observations and in-service courses at the D. C. Teachers College were considered somewhat helpful. Senior high school teachers followed a similar pattern, but generally speaking, the majority who had participated in in-service programs responded that they had not found them to be very helpful. They much preferred those programs in which they had had some participation in the planning. For example, one of the first in-service programs at the Educational Resources Center was the training of large numbers of teachers in the use of audio-visual equipment. Teacher interviews revealed that the reason many teachers did not utilize equipment was not technical ignorance but rather, endless red tape and delay in securing appropriate equipment, films, tapes and replacement items. Had teachers been involved in planning and evaluating the effectiveness of in-service programs, the direction would have been different.

Clear assignment of staff responsibility for the construction and coordination of in-service education is essential. Well-integrated programs are a must. Highest priority, though, must attach to correcting deficiencies in teachers' competencies. Several approaches will be needed, some as general as a liberal arts program, some as specific as mathematics courses for mathematics teachers. Coordinated efforts of colleges and universities, professional societies, government agencies and the schools are necessary. Second, correcting individual teachers' weaknesses calls for close cooperation between supervision and in-service education. Third, serving individual staff members' needs represents a healthy approach that makes the individual more responsible for his own in-service education. A positive program originating from central office staff, as well as from principals, could do much to vitalize the total professional staff. Fourth, maintaining an ongoing educational program in the Washington context is a most difficult task. Substantial staff turnover accelerates trends toward retrogression and disorganication. Preventive efforts are only partially effective. Fifth, preparing staff to

cope with new knowledge and with program innovation requires stepped-up programs of in-service education. Integrating the planning of these five kinds of efforts will call for skill and sensitivity. Inter-relationships are the key to success for curricular design, supervision and innovation, plus procedures for purchasing instructional supplies, equipment and facilities.

In-service education is too complex to be centralized completely. To be most effective, it requires considerable personal interaction, a high level of staff involvement in planning and specially tailored activities. The merits of decentralization are typified by the Model School Division, by the Language Arts Program and by the regional Project 370, which embodies a high level of administrative and teacher participation. A combination of decentralization and enrichment of staff skills should improve the balance for coordination. Firmer leadership and more in-service programming should begin in each building, for this staff group is a natural center for professional interaction, stimulation and morale boosting. To make in-service programs at the building level a reality, heads of secondary school departments and principals will need special aides to extend their hands and their influence. The central office should consider what staff resources it can allocate to the cause.

The most crucial factor of all is the quality of leadership for in-service education. In view of the size and complexity of the task and of the school system, this program will thrive best in the hands of responsive and energetic individuals who have confidence in staff members, who can generate a feeling of security, and who can endue staff members with a sense of confidence and urgency as they retrain themselves to give first-rate instruction to Washington's children.

Supervision

Theoretically, supervision has two major functions: (1) helping individual teachers to better their teaching and the curricular designing process in the classroom and (2) controlling quality. Actually, most staff interviews regarded supervision as synonymous with teacher rating. All individuals who consider themselves supervisors always claimed other curriculum designing, in-service education and innovation responsibilities as well.

At the elementary school level, the Department of Elementary Supervision and Instruction observes all teachers and rates temporary and probationary teachers twice a year. Observations are followed by a conference in which the rating is initialled by the teacher and then forwarded to the central office. The general elementary school supervisors appear to maintain close contact with schools on a regular schedule and are called upon for various kinds of assistance. While elementary school principals (who are supposed to be instructional leaders in their buildings) rate teachers, they are often too busy to work closely with them. Sometimes, principals limit their attention to new staff members. At the secondary level, the Assistant Superintendent for Junior and Senior High Schools and members of his immediate staff regularly schedule visits to buildings. They tend to focus on total building considerations and relations with the subject supervisors; occasionally, they visit teachers on request of the principal. Critiques are sent to principals and there is an attempt to follow up on school needs with other central office departments.

Supervising directors in the various subject fields are responsible for rating new secondary school teachers and often assist the principal in his formal rating responsibility with temporary or probationary teachers. Assistant principals also participate. As half or more of the teachers in a large building may be temporary or probationary, required semi-annual ratings are very time consuming. It is a rare school in which a

principal demonstrates systematic and continuous effort to induct new teachers. More typically, since rating tends to cause apprehension on the part of those who are being rated, teachers hesitate to call for help from a staff member who is doing the rating.

The growing number of subject specialists on the staffs of the various supervising directors has stirred confusion over relations with the elementary supervisors. Although the specialists are supposed to have no rating responsibility, this claim is not uniformly accepted by teachers. Consequently, the specialists' effectiveness as consultants remains limited.

Personnel responsibilities within the supervisory process need clarification. The rating function should be left to the principal as a line officer, who can decide if he wants the advice of a subject specialist. There is a noticeable lack of direct personal contact with and assistance for teachers, especially at the secondary level. Leadership staff ought to meet with teachers regularly, to plan and review problems and programs. These should be small grade groupings, teams or department meetings in most instances. Where elementary school buildings are too large for the administrative staff to participate in all such meetings, central office representatives or able senior teachers should take on the leadership assignments. At the secondary level, department heads merit time and training for carrying on this function. Various specialists should, of course, be on call to assist such faculty groups. The teaching and professional staff in the District must have greater attention and direct assistance than they are now getting if they are to cope with problems.

Innovation in the District Schools

Curricular innovation has received a good deal of attention in Washington but it is an elusive and difficult area to assess. The term is used to include any deliberate or specific change directly related to the educational program. Innovations originate from many sources. The Amidon Plan, one of the most pervasive innovations, originated with the Superintendent of Schools and was furthered and developed by the Assistant Superintendent for Elementary Education when she was principal of the Amidon School. Its rapid acceptance as a District-wide plan is difficult to explain, except that it appears to have had genuine and wide-spread administrative support.

Subsequent innovations appeared frequently, had less widespread support and seem to have left a much smaller impact if any. Some innovations are more or less forced upon the school by citizens' committees. Some innovations are simply reactions of the school system to pressures of one kind or another. In the case of Project 370, a group of principals was influential in initiating the program. Private and public agencies often invite the schools of the nation's capital to pioneer on the education frontier. For example, the Great Cities Project in the Language Arts started with Ford Foundation help but now has District funding; however, its long-term position in the schools is still not clear. Various agencies of the federal government have encouraged innovation, and the District seems to have participated in a number of well-known subject-matter projects.

With the flow of money from Impact Aid, OEO and ESEA, the rate of introducing new programs was greatly speeded. In fact, the current situation is somewhat abnormally influenced by the receipt of these federal funds and the uncertainties regarding their control and availability for the future.

The Assistant Superintendents for Elementary Schools, for Junior and Senior High Schools, and for General Research, Budget and Legislation all have major responsibilities relating to the initiation and monitoring of innovations. The latter officer is

concerned with evaluation of federally supported projects. Supervising directors in the various subject areas are concerned with keeping abreast of new developments in their own fields and some have initiated changes that were innovative. Some principals introduce projects which are, at best, slight modifications of program or practice. In a few instances, substantial changes in the program have been made, usually for a specific group of pupils.

The Model School Division is itself an innovation which has cradled many lesser innovations; some of these pre-dated the Division and some were the products of other administrative units in schools which are part of the Model School Division.

A 1965 bulletin entitled Innovation in Instruction listed approximately 100 projects categorized under four headings: (1) Urban Service Corps, (2) Model School Division, (3) City Programs and (4) Summer Programs. In the latter category, were numerous projects funded under Title I of ESEA. By 1967, a sizeable number of these 100 projects had either disappeared, had been greatly watered down or were simply difficult to locate.

The Model School Division. Since its inception, the Model School Division has been a source of controversy, primarily in terms of its mission and its funding. Its dependence on partial funding from outside sources, its involvement with lay organizations, and its special position within the school's bureaucratic structure have caused many problems. The Superintendent of Schools saw the MSD primarily as a demonstration unit, not necessarily as a creator of innovations; a model sub-system designed to "ensure the infusion of new ideas and lessen institutional reluctance to departing from existing procedures." The United Planning Organization, on the other hand, tended to view MSD only in terms of "shaking up the system" itself by developing different patterns of schooling. The MSD describes its special mission in its June 1967 Report as an "across the board experiment -- curriculum development, utilization of teachers, the management of the system itself -- with provisions for... rapid exploitation of new opportunities" for inner-city children. The Cardozo area, in which it is centered, was selected on the basis of studies by the Washington Action for Youth, the Juvenile Delinquency Prevention Project. The Division presently includes five pre-schools, 14 elementary schools, four junior high schools (one slated for opening in September 1967), Cardozo Senior High and the city-wide vocational high school. Some 665 teachers are included in the professional staffs. The June 1967 Report indicates that "approximately 26 innovative projects have been planned and implemented."

The four basic objectives of MSD are:

1. To improve the quality of instruction, through "creative" development and use of staff, curriculum, classroom organizational patterns and auxiliary personnel.

2. To extend educational services, through determining and serving the special needs of its community.

3. To develop interaction and involvement of the community with the schools, through parent involvement in school planning, coordination of community resources with community needs, and through programs which help parents support their child's learning.

4. To improve administration, through coordination or experimental programs with on-going school activities, flexible administrative practices, and new patterns of personnel utilization and employment.

In April 1966, the Advisory Committee issued a lengthy report detailing 21 months of activities and describing the problems it had perceived in carrying out its assignment: "to develop and adopt a plan of action in implementing the 'Model School subsystem' concept." The report (known as the Bazelon Report after the chairman of the committee, Judge David Bazelon) was highly critical of the Superintendent of Schools and the Board of Education, who the Advisory Committee felt, had been given the freedom to make the substantive changes needed in the urban slum schools but had quickly drawn back. Basic problems had to do with the inflexibility of the system and lack of financial support. Other problems reflected the absence of planning, the poor coordination, and the failure to evaluate innovations.

The Division does have many gains to its credit. It appears to have accomplished much in bringing elementary and secondary school principals together in a meaningful dialogue. It has developed an espirit de corps within its staff. The materials it has distributed have apparently enriched the programs. It has launched several challenging ungraded and team-teaching projects. Significantly, it has found ways to draw upon research relating to innovation. MSD might well become increasingly productive, given appropriate support, administrative and financial.

The MSD report listed these as sources of its major difficulties:

1. The emotional, intellectual and physical needs resulting from poverty and the unstable home environments of the pupils.

2. The overcrowded, outmoded facilities of the area, uncongenial to new patterns of organization.

3. The semi-autonomous status, which multiplies administrative problems within the context of the four regulating agencies: the District Public Schools, the District Government, the United Planning Organization, and the Office of Economic Opportunity.

4. Inadequate coordination, stemming from no central headquarters and poor planning and communication patterns among staff members, ending in duplication or conflicts of interest.

5. Worst of all, the unpredictable and unstable fiscal history of the Model School Division. Erratic funding, budget cutbacks, and last minute appropriations have bedevilled the MSD.

An organizational study by the Harvard University Graduate School of Business Administration cited three problems affecting the MSD operations: the introduction of new programs without adequate orientation and involvement of teachers and principals; the lack of systematic evaluation of programs; and an administrative structure which was not conducive to experimentation and change.

The Model School programs now include the following:

1. Staff Development, including summer institutes in use of new curriculum materials in math, science and social studies.

2. The Cardozo Project in Urban Teaching, involving the training of young people to work in inner-city schools.

3. School Assistants, paid employees who are not qualified teachers but aid in the educational program. These include the teacher aides, the

Model Services Project, the Neighborhood Youth Corps and the In-Service Aid Project.

4. Community School Program, an attempt to engage the school and community in mutually supportive roles. These include the Double-Barrell Extended Day Project designed to provide enrichment, recreation, counselling and tutorial services for disadvantaged children, with college students each serving as counselors to five children and the Harrison Educational Camping Project which takes youngsters to an outdoor setting for five-day sessions.

5. Cultural Enrichment, exposing the children to musical, dramatic and dance performances and providing opportunities to meet with artists of various kinds.

6. Curriculum Improvement Program, modifications and adoptions of curriculum for the inner-city schools. At the end of the 1966-1967 school year, there were 17 reading programs in the Model Schools as well as other projects involving mathematics, social studies and science.

7. Classroom Organization, which tests team teaching in non-graded primary and intermediate programs.

8. The Pre-School Program, aimed at enriching the educational experiences of three-, four-, and five-year-old children of low-income families.

The Model School Division represents the closest thing available in Washington to a system for initiating and testing ideas new to the District system. Problems have flowed, of course, from the joint funding by the District schools and the United Planning Organization, as well as from confusion over the inter-relationships among the two agencies and the Model Schools Advisory Committee. The relationship between the UPO's Education Section and the Model School Division has stuck on the point of program initiation, where it is to come from and who is to determine its dimensions. There are diametrically opposing views as to the seat of authority for program development as contrasted with program approval. There are also disputes over the relationship of the Model School Division to the rest of the school system.

The basic question is whether MSD is really to be autonomous, solvent and free. Finally, there is the basic question of demonstration versus innovation. Demonstration would simply involve locating good ideas and putting them into practice for the in-service edification of other school staffs. However, if MSD is to innovate, then its role involves some demonstration and dissemination, of course, but even more program planning and experimental development. The request of MSD for $100,000 for planning purposes firms up a position which has been wavering. Evaluation of the quality and impact of MSD programs has been erratic.

Analysis of Innovations. Many general statements about innovation are unfair because of the diversity of the innovations and their strange origins. Nevertheless, certain generalizations are valid:

1. Several innovations have been thoroughly planned and established but never evaluated. Their ultimate influence and impact, if any, are not clear. The Great Cities Project in the Language Arts is probably a good example of this problem. Started with Ford Foundation funds, it has been assumed by the city and supported in 21 schools. The project involves the development of materials, the training and supervision of teachers, and the production of materials. Leadership appears to have been excellent. Now,

after several years of operation, the basic rationale is just being reviewed and its ultimate status clarified. This and other more or less successful projects appear to have strong leaders who could hold their own in the jostle for place and funds.

2. In spite of numerous reported innovations, most do not appear to have altered the school program. Some which were in the main line never got the necessary staffing, materials or in-service education.

3. Many innovations are of a fringe nature or are devoted to special problems. This does not lessen their value but helps to explain their relative obscurity in the total program. For example, the Webster Girls High School can serve only a very small number. Similarly, the summer programs are highly specialized. Many innovations reach only a small number of children for only a short period. Some of these disappear with the grant which supported them or with the person who initiated them. Others, such as some of the programs at Cardozo High School, survive longer.

4. Some so-called innovations appear to be more-of-the-same. Simply adding to staff or lengthening the day does not equal fundamental change or improvement. These moves may compensate for former staff shortages but are really not major program improvements as such. Many innovations are so poorly and sketchily planned and so lacking in fundamental rationale that their discontinuance is not surprising.

5. Communication within the school system is so poor that both teachers and buildings appear to be isolated from the mainstream of program development and innovation. The entire dissemination process has been given short shrift in the District as a whole.

6. Research and evaluation on innovation are so rare as to undermine the potential influence of an innovation. Not even intentions, let alone plans, exist for studying innovations to identify their adaptable benefits. Even where programs are evaluated as in the case of EASEA or some Model School projects, the dissemination and use of findings are restricted to a report which reaches the Board and the press, but seldom the planners. This may be because those in power almost never view the innovations as solutions to major problems.

7. While a dynamic atmosphere may be produced by a record of dozens of "innovations," present procedures appear to be wasteful of energy and possibly of funds as well. They hold little promise for reforming or greatly improving the educational program.

A meaningful program of innovation and planned change is more complicated than it sounds. Several approaches are recommended for consideration: (1) A more careful analysis of major program needs and deficiencies should precede efforts to innovate. Underlying rationales must be crystallized, understood and accepted. Innovations should be more thoughtfully designed to serve important long-term program goals. The exception to this, of course, would be a proposal dealing with an immediate short-term problem. (2) The school system is more likely to be affected by massive efforts, carefully designed and with major financial support, than by a large number of small investments. The latter should certainly be encouraged, though they probably cannot be counted on to materialize major reforms. (3) The District should develop a Division with specific responsibility, staffing and support to undertake major innovation, planning and research. (4) A small but able group of program and research specialists should be charged to activate the new division. They should have three essentials: sufficient funds to secure special staff people for short periods, access to schools, and the participation of teachers or others at appropriate points for the tryout and testing of new ideas. These planner-innovators will need to keep in constant communication with others if they are to serve the interests of various groups as well as to stimulate or initiate programs

for testing. Certainly, many organization changes within the school will be necessary if such a unit is to survive.

Conclusions. The analyses of curriculum design, in-service education, supervision and innovation suggest very serious problems encompassing staffing, financial support of strategic places and organizational and managerial effectiveness. The analyses also reveal a failure to operate effectively in all four areas. Confusion has been the by-product of inept management at a time of rapid expansions in staff and in financial support. The District's tradition and current character have complicated its already serious problems, which are like those of most large cities. There appear to be a generous number of able and devoted staff members in the school system, as well as interested citizens in the community who presumably could be mobilized for a massive effort to reform the schools. The question then becomes, what are the most crucial points of attack upon the educational program?

First, a massive effort should be made to personalize, humanize and upgrade the program in each building. The focal point in this must be the individual teachers and in-service training to increase their effectiveness. To this end, teachers must become more involved in curriculum review and development. They must be assured of regular and ample opportunity to interact with their immediate colleagues in program development. The system must find many ways to help teachers keep abreast of whatever new developments affect their teaching, be they educational conditions or ideas in Washington or elsewhere. Substantial provisions for in-service education ought to be built into their daily schedules. Probably most important, the organization of each school should foster staff meetings dedicated to planning educational programs for children and to self-education as well. This is particularly urgent because Washington employs so many temporary and probationary teachers - though continuing education is vital for all teachers everywhere. Weekly staff meetings can also reduce the isolation and anonymity which characterizes teaching in all schools. Small intimate groups (teams or grades) would usually be concerned with a common classroom task in relation to which they should be able to tap expertise and consultant help. There should be frequent opportunities for other kinds of professional contacts as well. Elsewhere, it has been recommended that 15 to 20 percent of the teacher's time be devoted to his continuing education and growing competence. This does not mean free time but time assigned for professional growth in an ambience of stimulating resources. Helping the individual teacher does not mean overpowering him with specialists. The elementary school teacher, particularly, will be subjected to pressure and demands from many different sources and these will have to be coordinated carefully. Sufficient staff should be provided to keep regular classes down to 20 or 25 students. Administrative assistants, counselors, diagnosticians, provision for seriously disturbed children and other specialized help should be available to teachers.

Adequate leadership should be able to keep the program moving and to facilitate continuous assessment of student progress, as well as of teacher morale. Only as teachers come to believe in themselves and in the children they teach can the educational program advance.

Each building needs easy access to psychologists, social workers, community coordinators, psychiatric consultants -- in working with students on their problems. Secretarial assistance for teachers, aides to release teachers for professional activities and enough clerks to free the schools' administrative staff from clerical details are further essentials.

The task force has earlier recommended setting up a division of Planning, Research and Innovation. This department would continuously search for new developments either

within or without the system, plan trials and evaluations of promising changes, and monitor and evaluate practices being tested. The division staff should be able to tackle problems of diffusion and institutionalization change, to review the overall program of existing units such as the junior high schools, which now appear to be a specific instructional trouble spot, to devise and maintain accepted programs of continuing education for professionals.

At present, the District has no machinery for long-term program planning, for designing major innovations, or for assessing experiments. The whole school system might well foster an innovative attitude on the part of its staff, to improve specific practices and to encourage the initiation of broader or more significant innovations anywhere in the system. However, much more could be expected from a unit responsible for better planning and sensitive to experimentation.

The two preceding proposals (for a massive change in in-service programs at the building level and for drastic modifications in the organization of the instructional program) will undoubtedly fall short of expectations unless there are changes in the total structure of the school system and in the means of approaching organizational problems. The present psychological climate of the system reveals troublesome symptoms: unsteady goal focus, serious communication deficiencies and conflicts over authority and responsibility, especially among teachers. Undoubtedly, there is need throughout the system for measures calculated to induce organizational help. Miles has suggested such procedures as: team training, survey feedback, role workshops, target setting and supporting activities, organizational diagnosis and problem solving, and organization experimentation. Promising as structural changes are, it would be desirable to apply some of the foregoing techniques to self-study, clarification of relationships, increased data flow and internal communication, temporary systems approaches to change, and the guidance of expert consultants.

The Division of Planning, Research and Innovation might pattern its operations on the Hawaiian Curriculum Center, which is geared "for large-scale design and development in selected areas of curriculum and for demonstration and evaluation of local, national and international curriculum." Other state education departments have undertaken some similar types of organization for research and development, usually involving joint activity with universities, regional laboratories and research and development centers. New York State's Center for Innovation and Experimentation presents another alternative model.

The past decade has witnessed the mushrooming of national curriculum committees in the various subject disciplines, mergers of publishing houses with producers of instructional materials, new kinds of cooperative relationships between university and school personnel, new support from private foundations and a greatly expanded federal involvement in instruction. The District cannot "go it alone" and expect to build the quality instruction needed. The proposed department could provide the stimulation, leadership, coordination of resources--local, regional and national--required to develop curricula and resources, to train teachers and to provide the model for urban education. The crisis in urban education is related to the organizational structure which hampers adaptation and innovation to social change.

Inserting a new level of administration between the central staff and the school building -- the proposed area superintendencies -- should strike the necessary balance between decentralization (in the local community) and the centralized resources of headquarters. The in-service training procedures proposed would relate to work in the District schools, in contrast to the teacher's general academic and professional background. Suggested are a variety of in-service procedures -- seminars, group discussions,

demonstrations, lectures. Personnel to undertake this in-service training would include staff (supervisory and central office personnel) and unusually successful teachers who have been identified with schools and classrooms all over the District. It would involve subject-matter specialists and social and behavioral scientists. The District should encourage and aggressively seek relationships with a variety of colleges and universities, such as the Antioch College - Adams-Morgan partnership. System and college will share responsibility for developing the curriculum, training the teachers and the teacher aides, and conducting general research in the area of school relations. While such a relationship involves only two schools, this laboratory could serve as a prototype for other program development ventures. The Division of Planning, Innovation and Research could coordinate areas and demonstrations, serving as the operational nerve center.

Educational research and development involving school systems and university researchers have not always functioned smoothly. The professional researcher at the university has viewed the school populations basically in terms of populations-to-be-studied, while the practitioners in the field have been defensive about their programs and have not wanted to disrupt these for investigations. Research and evaluation of working educational programs in process have gained status with recent federal support. No longer are schools perceived simply as sources of subjects to be studied by the outside researcher nor are the schools simply concerned with getting some figures to support a particular program. The basic problem now becomes, what kinds of valid (and fundable) studies can be undertaken jointly or by each of the partners? Both partners of the enterprise need education for the attitudinal change which can lead to valuable research in the field setting. One example of a key investigation would be an analysis of the bases for decision-making within the District system. The research needed in the District will call for development of new techniques and procedures, adaptations of others and a general shift from research aimed at reports or contributions to the professional literature towards research beamed at new operating procedures. Such research calls for strategies and designs, trained research personnel techniques and instruments which, in some cases, do not yet exist. As the District develops its own research and evaluation units, training of personnel will be essential. To attract the federal funds available for such training, the District should develop relationships with institutions of higher education for joint training programs. The research and evaluation unit will need to install procedures for using assembled knowledge and experience such as the ERIC Program. The District should exploit these clearing house materials as the basis for monitoring and interpreting research in terms of Washington's needs. It has already been recommended that routine information-collection procedures in the schools be drastically modified, using the automated data processing system. The central unit eventually should be a resource of expertise for school building personnel seeking to fuse research and evaluation designs into the planning of programs. Finally, the unit could serve as liaison between researchers from the university or college and the school system.

The purpose of research and evaluation in the schools is not to defend or "prove" that a particular project or program is valid but rather to provide the kinds of data which will enable the professional staff at all levels to make better decisions for the future. Viewed in this fashion, research and evaluation are basic to all educational planning. The federal programs requiring evaluative studies have underscored the critical weaknesses which exist in designing and implementing program evaluation in the field settings. It is recommended that the Research and Evaluation Section undertake a study of its own techniques and procedures in order to provide information and training of researchers.

In Summary. If quality education is to materialize in the District schools, the major focus of efforts must be on the personnel who conduct the educational programs

and arrange the conditions for learning. This includes all instructional staff: teachers, administrators, supervisors, supporting service personnel, aides and volunteers, custodians and clerks. It has been recommended that a massive in-service continuing education program be shaped and tailored to all personnel, professional and paraprofessional. No substantive improvement will be realized by simply publishing a new curriculum guide nor adopting another textbook. Not only classroom teachers but principals, supervisors and other leadership personnel require ongoing and continuing education. This comprehensive schema for professional growth will require staff, time allocation and funding of an unprecedented order. True, city systems have had in-service courses; they have provided for attendance at courses at nearby colleges and universities; they have made other arrangements. The prescription for Washington differs by integrating continuing education into the total professional armament of all the District's educators. When combined with a research and development program and a long-range planning operation, the District schools could realize considerable upgrading.

Chapter 13

Pupil Personnel and Welfare Services [1]

The District schools provide a variety of pupil personnel and related welfare services -- health and nursing, speech and hearing, and reading clinics. Some of these services are arranged by agreement with the D. C. Department of Health but most stem directly from the school system.

Department of Pupil Personnel Services

The Department of Pupil Personnel Services is the product of a series of mergers which began in 1955. It now consists of seven divisions plus special programs. The divisions include:

Child Youth and Study
Guidance and Counseling Service
School Attendance and Work Permit
Group Measurement
Special Education Placement
Parents' Consultation Service
Identification and Prevention of Potential Dropout

The latter two programs were added under Impact Aid and Title I, ESEA aid, as was a Kindergarten-Grade 3 "Early Identification and Prevention Program." The growth in department personnel during the past half dozen years can be seen from the data in Table 13-1 below.

Child and Youth Study Division. The broad objective of the clinical services of Child and Youth Study is to "enhance sound mental health practices in every classroom in every school building in the District of Columbia Public Schools." The operating model used is that of a traditional child guidance clinic whose professional staff combine skills in diagnostic and treatment services. These specialists provide mental health consultation to parents, school administrators, teachers and counselors. For the most part, secondary intervention measures are used, including appraisal of individual intellectual, emotional and social development followed by appropriate recommendations for school placement and/or personal and social adjustment. When intensive services are necessary, referrals are made to the appropriate community agencies.

Clinical Service Teams. In 1965-66, four clinical service teams were organized for four areas of the District. Each team theoretically has a team leader (a clinical psychologist), a second clinical psychologist, a psychiatric social worker and five school psychologists. In fact, no team had its full staff complement during 1966-67. Table 13-2 presents the number of buildings assigned, the total pupil enrollment and the number of referrals received for each staff position for the four regular field service teams for the year 1965-66. A comparison of the total pupil enrollment and number of referrals shows that from four to six percent of the pupils are being referred to the clinical teams of this division. The table indicates a relatively smaller number of referrals are received by the clinical psychologists than by the school psychologists. This reflects the assignment of the former to the high schools, to the absentees and the suspension cases.

1/ Dr. Charles N. Morris prepared the report on which this section is based.

Table 13-1

Staff Positions of the Department of Pupil Personnel Services
By Division and Specialty, October 1, Biennially, 1960-1966[a]

Division Personnel	1960	1962	1964	1966
Guidance				
Central Office	2	2	2	3
Elementary	-	6	29	97
Junior High School	31	33	48	80
Senior High School	23	23	32	48
Vocational	2	1	3	6
Other	1	4	4	5
Placement Counselors	2	2	1	-
Total	59	71	119	239
Child and Youth Study				
Psychiatrists	1	1	1	1.5
Clinical Psychologists	4	4	5	11
Psychiatric Social Workers	2	2	2	4
School Psychologists	13	15	19	28
School Social Workers	2	1	2	3
Total	22	23	29	47.5
Group Measurement	10[b]	9[b]	4	4
Attendance				
Supervising Director	1	1	1	1
Attendance Officers	25	25	25	31
Child Labor Inspectors	2	2	2	2
Census Supervisor	1	1	1	1
Total	29	29	29	35
Title I Program				
Pupil Personnel Workers	-	-	-	45
Pupil Personnel Aides	-	-	-	47.5
Psychiatrists	-	-	-	.5
Clinical Psychologists	-	-	-	3
Psychiatric Social Workers	-	-	-	4
School Psychologists	-	-	-	4
School Social Workers	-	-	-	6
Total	-	-	-	110
Parents' Consultation Service	-	-	-	3
Special Education - Placement	1	1	1	1

a/ Table compiled from annual budgets; figures not necessarily comparable to annual report figures because of difference in reporting times and unfilled positions.

b/ Also participated in individual testing.

Table 13-2

Number of Buildings Assigned, Total Pupil Enrollment, and Number of Referrals Received for Each Staff Position for the Four Regular Field Service Teams, 1965-66

	Team 1			Team 2			Team 3			Team 4		
	No. Bldgs.	Total Pupil Enroll.	Total Ref. Rec'd.	No. Bldgs.	Total Pupil Enroll.	Total Ref. Rec'd.	No. Bldgs.	Total Pupil Enroll.	Total Ref. Rec'd.	No. Bldgs.	Total Pupil Enroll.	Total Ref. Rec'd.
Clinical Psych.	4	6,210	130	4	3,100	174	6	4,000	105	6	5,275	245
School Psych.#1	9	6,945	389	4	3,465	187	6	1,835	49	10	5,655	332
School Psych.#1[b/]				4	3,025	185[a/]	7	2,730	200			
School Psych.#2	8	6,375	299	8	7,810	428	9	5,870	290	9	4,855	397
School Psych.#3	10	6,035	346	8	8,270	383	8	4,405	347	8	13,800	264
School Psych.#4	8	5,246	471	8	8,085	366	7	5,165	330	7	4,885	451
School Psych.#5	7	5,600	279[a/]	8	5,170	259[a/]	8	7,545	230			
Total		36,411	1,914		38,925	1,982		31,555	1,551		34,870	1,689

a/ Unassigned. Team #1 and Team #2.

b/ Psychologist #1, Team #2 and 3, two half-time psychologists.

Source: Public Schools of the District of Columbia, Department of Pupil Personnel Services, Child and Youth Study Division. Psychological Services Present Case Load, October, 1966.

Table 13-3

Cases Studied and Referrals Made by Child and Youth Study Division, 1965-66

No. of Cases and Referrals Sources and Reasons	Elem.	J.H.S.	S.H.S.	V.H.S.	Total
Referral Received[1/]	5375	2150	647	10	8182
Cases Studied and Reported	3228	1616	548	6	5408
Cases Studied Requiring Testing	2271	646	197	6	3120
Cases Studied Requiring Consultation	452	360	43	0	855
Cases Studied Requiring Consultation without Referral Form 205	970	1008	253	0	2231
Cases re Early Age Entrance to First Grade					248
Cases re May Honors Program					173
Referral Remaining to be Studied					2074
Sources of Referrals for Cases Studied and Reported	3055	1228	452	6	4819[2/]
Reasons for Referrals					
Emotional	641	240	38	3	922[2/]
Social	601	219	20	1	841
Special Academic Placement	1367	660	366	0	2401[2/]
Suspension	21	70	16	0	107
Other Placement	586	127	10	1	753[2/]
Individual Psychological Tests Administered					8405
Small Group Tests Administered					188

1/ Form 205 Referrals from 1964-65, 2482; from 1965-66, 5700.

2/ Total includes pupils from Special Education and others.

Source: Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

Children are referred to the Child and Youth Study Division for psychological evaluation for any of a number of reasons: inability to profit from school experience, request for consultation, screening for psychiatric services, grade adjustment and placement, special education placement, behavioral problems, administrative suspension and re-admission from temporary exclusion or after voluntary withdrawal. Cases considered for "temporary exclusion" cite mental, emotional, social and/or physical causes. (According to the Attendance Department's reports, suspensions are made at times without the formality of study and recommendation.) Pupils may be referred to the Boys' Junior-Senior High School, to special education classes or to various community agencies.

The scope of psychological services can be seen in the data reported for the 1965-66 school year in Table 13-3.

The past years have seen an increase in the total number of cases referred to the Division (on Referral Form 205) and expansion of the staff assigned to regular field services. Yet, a rising backlog in the number of "unhonored Form 205's" is carried over to the next year. Consultation has absorbed a larger chunk of staff time, necessarily cutting into study and reporting time. The caseload pupil enrollments assigned each full-time school psychologist is from 3800 to 8270 with an estimated median pupil-psychologist ratio of 6500:1.

The school psychologists participate in the early entrance program for first grade (for children who reach age six between November 2 and January 15). They evaluate pupils referred for placement in the May Honors Program for the gifted. In 1965-66, these two programs involved 248 and 322 pupils, respectively. In addition, this Division was responsible for conducting special testing programs, such as assigning pupils to the Special Academic Curriculum.

To test a team approach and develop guidelines for team services during the regular school year, the Child and Youth Study Division conducted a pilot eight-week project (Summer 1965) in designated areas of the city. They recommended the Division have fewer cases, maximum intervention in each case, better physical facilities, and direct communication with the central administration.

The Early Identification and Prevention Program (EIPP), a three-year program begun in August 1964, seeks to identify incipient problems of pupils in kindergarten through grade three in 12 elementary schools. The intent is to pinpoint children with special needs and help them before the problems become serious maladjustments and impairing handicaps. Three teams, each consisting of a clinical psychologist (team leader), three school psychologists and a social worker, worked with the dozen schools involved.

The first year's activities (1965-66) centered on a thorough study of all children in kindergartens and Junior Primary classes. Screening of 2,794 pupils turned up a total of 1,195 pupils (44 percent) requiring intervention. Of those requiring help, 566 (47 percent) did receive some psychological or social work assistance. The staff identified 50 percent more pupils in need of special services than could be helped with the resources available. The nature of the problems found among the children is indicated by the analysis in Table 13-4.

The incidence of children with multiple problems was fairly high. Identification is only a first step and attempts are being made to provide adequate professional staff for training, counseling and support of school personnel involved in primary intervention. During the 1966-67 school year, the EIPP teams continued work with the populations identified in the prior year, most of whom had moved up to first grade. The EIPP

Table 13-4

Problems Found Among 1,195 Kindergarten and Junior Primary Children Screened in the Early Identification and Prevention Program, 1965-66

Problem Area	Total Number N=1, 195[a]
Physical Defects	
Speech	192
Vision	151
Malnutrition	95
Hearing	70
Respiratory	50
Orthopedic	34
Dental	23
Emotional	307
Social	342
Economic	335
Educational inadequacies	384
Family	444
Suspension	2
Other	110

a/ Total greater than 1,195 due to incidence of multiple problems.

Source: Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

stresses individual diagnosis, the traditional clinical approach, but essays preventive measures as well. The techniques of intervention included: individual counseling, perceptual training, referral for physical remediation; group, parent and teacher counseling; social casework. A total of 1,210 cases were discussed with teachers. The first-year report observed:

> It has become apparent that the success of this program hinges upon the provision of adequate professional staff, not only to identify but offer supportive, therapeutic, certain training -- i.e., perceptual, parent and teacher counseling, among other services to all pupils and situations in need of remedial, supportive, and consultative techniques.... This is an expensive proposition; but, nevertheless, the expense becomes minimal when compared with the cost incurred by the citizenry for welfare, legal, and health services.

The social workers in the programs devoted their time to helping the children's families with basic survival needs such as food, shelter, clothes and health services. The program, not a research project but a pilot operation, will be carefully assessed if funds are made available for evaluation.

Cooperation with Community Resources. In its referrals and other work, the Child and Youth Study Division teams cooperate with other agencies and groups in the District.

The following are illustrative:

a. D. C. Department of Health. The most commonly used community resource is the District's Department of Health which plans, implements and directs public health and hospital care programs, plus allied medical functions, including mental health.

Prior to 1964-65, the relationship between the public schools and the Department of Health existed in a Special Services Division which provided diagnostic, consultative and therapeutic services. This division was disbanded when a comprehensive community health plan was approved. Since then, the two departments have tried to coordinate mental health services offered to children. A study proposal for "Coordination of Psychological Services" views the mental health program in the schools as an aid in the prevention, identification and rehabilitation of problems. If the proposal is adopted, the Department of Pupil Personnel Services would be responsible for the evaluation and referral of children for further study to the Children's Division of the Area Mental Health Center. This service would be coordinated by the social worker. A coordinator will be appointed for each of the four health service areas, responsible for receiving and facilitating referrals.

Since 1964, a barrier to full cooperation between schools and the Health Department has been disagreement over the recommendation of the U. S. Comptroller-General that all the services (including the school health program) be consolidated under the Department of Public Health. At that time 43 nurses, a psychiatrist, two psychologists and two social workers were employed by the Board of Education. The Superintendent of Schools has opposed this consolidation arguing that it would not serve the children so well as the existing program. In January 1967, the Board of Commissioners received a recommendation from the D. C. Management Office that the school health program be centralized under the Department of Health. The Superintendent again opposed the merger asserting that school health services would suffer because of the lower nurse-student ratio in the Public Health Department. The District Commissioners have not resolved the issue yet.

b. Eugene and Agnes Meyer Foundation. This private foundation has supported a variety of psychological services and demonstration projects since 1951. It has made grants through the Washington School of Psychiatry and directly to the schools. Programs include projects for individual counseling for children; a central mental health clinic serving 14 feeder schools; and community psychiatry and mental health programs. The foundation enabled the Washington School for Psychiatry to establish a consulting program for teachers at one elementary school and operate workshops for school psychologists, counselors and elementary school principals. It has funded a program designed to demonstrate the effectiveness of school psychologists as consultants to teachers, principals and parents. While some of the programs supported during the past 15 years or so have been continued, the majority were dropped when foundation support terminated. The reason seems not to have been the lack of effectiveness of the programs but the inability of the school system to secure funds for development and continuation.

c. Washington School of Psychiatry. A three-year program titled, "School Project on Consultation Skills," was begun in 1962 under a grant from the National Institute of Mental Health to demonstrate the usefulness of alternatives to the referral process. From this program emerged a project in preventive mental health in which school personnel would learn what and how to communicate to children, parents and teachers. Two results were noted: a new emphasis on consultation as a major activity of the school psychologist and the acceptance by other school personnel of this new role.

d. Parent Associations' Subsidies for Consultation (Mental Health Consultation to the Schools). Several of the District's more affluent areas have access to the service of psychiatric and psychological consultants paid for by the parent associations of the schools. The exact number of such programs is uncertain, although they need administrative approval from the Assistant Superintendent of Pupil Personnel Services. It is understood that such privately employed personnel provide services to parents and teachers through conferences, education groups and seminars. However, at some schools children obtain diagnostic and treatment services, reports of which are added to the child's permanent record. Psychologists' recommendations are forwarded to proper school personnel and, in some cases, "countersigned" by the school psychologist. Presumably, staff psychologists are thus able to give greater attention to the caseload in other schools lacking such programs.

e. Other Services. Among other services are social work interns from Howard University; psychological consultation from Mental Health Centers of the Department of Public Health; social services from Family and Child Services; and guidance services offered in cooperation with the Department of Health and Howard University. Each of these services functions in selected schools, often because of the particular interest and cooperation of the principal.

Opportunities for Professional Growth. There is no systematic, planned in-service program within the Division of Child and Youth Study. There is an orientation for new staff members at the beginning of each year. Staff meetings and conferences are conducted as needed; typical meetings involve a leader and members of his team, while team leaders meet monthly as a group with the supervising director. In-service activities tend to be erratic; no university has entered into a formal relationship with the public schools, although there are many courses and programs open to school personnel.

Perceived Strengths and Weaknesses. In response to a questionnaire, Division members identified these major problems: the lack of communication and coordination between personnel and programs, the difficulty of educating disadvantaged children, overcrowding and lack of funds and facilities. Proposed solutions emphasized the urgency to recruit school personnel capable of providing quality education for Washington's children and the need for general reorganization of administrative and staff procedures. The respondents wanted to sharpen their diagnostic, therapeutic and consultative skills, including better understanding of group techniques. The greatest strength cited was the "dedication of staff to the needs and problems of the children."

The shortage of qualified personnel due to low salaries, the elaborate referral system, the gaps among services, and the extensive use of individual evaluation all were considered blocks to the Division's effectiveness. These internal difficulties, together with delays in coordinating school-community projects, deprive the school population of their proper share of mental health services.

Division of Guidance and Counseling.

The functions of this Division of Guidance and Counseling are outlined as follows:

1. Articulation for the efficient transition of the pupil among school levels.
2. Orientation of the pupil to the school program and its educational and vocational implications.
3. Information concerning the student as gleaned from test results, cumulative records, and other measures of potentiality and interests, as a basis for his educational and occupational planning.
4. Individual counseling to help the pupil develop self-understanding.

5. Educational and vocational placement.
6. Follow-up programs designed to assist graduates and dropouts in making adjustments.
7. Research and study designed to evaluate and improve the guidance program.
8. Home and community coordination to serve as a liaison agent between the school and home and community.

The Counselor's Handbook outlines these activities to be performed by counselors on all levels; studying cumulative records; interpreting test results to students, teachers and parents; interviewing all pupils requesting services; and conducting conferences with pupils who are academically talented who have educational, economic, or personal-social problems, or who are planning to transfer, withdraw or graduate. Counselors may also be involved in organizing group activities; acquainting students with opportunities for further training and employment; conducting studies of school-leavers; and assisting dropouts. They are also expected to study records and recommend placement of special pupils in grade, track, curriculum, and school; suggest program changes, refer pupils with physical, mental, emotional or social problems to the appropriate school service or community agency; confer with school personnel about pupils needing special help; conduct case conferences and recommend pupils for vocational schools.

Elementary School Guidance. Elementary school counselors, still something of a novelty nationally, have been in the District schools for the last five years. The summaries in annual reports suggest that such guidance: (1) tends to be concentrated more heavily in grades 4-6 than in the earlier grades; (2) is more likely to be done by working through others, such as teachers and parents, than directly with the child; (3) is more likely than guidance at higher levels to involve helping students "with personal-social problems"; and (4) is more likely to involve counseling contacts in which the child, his parents or his teacher is summoned to the counselor.

Junior High School Guidance. Although guidance in junior high schools is a well established phenomenon nationally and in the District, junior high counselors -- like the junior high itself -- have had difficulty distinguishing their roles and functions from those of senior high counselors. The particular clientele of the large city junior high school tend to define the tasks of the counselor by the high incidence of psycho-social problems they present. There is an increase in contacts from grade seven to nine where one-third of the conferences deal with educational planning.

Senior High School Guidance. Senior high school counseling, particularly in an academic high school, is probably the most prestigious guidance position in the public schools. Whether this stems from the crucial nature of the go-to-work vs. continue-schooling decisions that high school students must make, or from the pupils' semi-adult status, is not clear.

Questionnaire Responses. The most striking finding from the questionnaire is the strong similarity of responses at three educational levels. At all levels, the same general findings appear to hold: personnel vigorously prefer individual counseling; consider small-group counseling a close second; after this, conferences with parents and group work; the last-ranked preference is conferences with teachers. All counselors agree that they do not like clerical tasks and building assignments unrelated to guidance. The elementary counselors differ from the other two groups on two counts: (1) they are much more interested in visiting pupils' homes and (2) they believe that they are too much involved in testing, a function which apparently does not bother junior and senior high school counselors.

Recommendations. The strengths of the Division of Guidance and Counseling arise

from its relatively long history and consequent opportunity to stabilize functions; from the relatively good, though not optimal, counselor-pupil ratios (reported as 1:389 in junior high schools and approaching the goal of at least one counselor in each elementary school); and from some of the special projects, such as STAY (School to Aid Youth) and Job Opportunity Day, with which the division has cooperated.

The guidance counselors believe the programs could be strengthened in several ways: for instance, necessary materials could be supplied; group counseling procedures developed; greater continuity provided for counselor-child relationships over a period of years (instead of grade level assignments); and opportunities improved for contact between central office personnel and counselors, other than at monthly meetings. Vocational guidance receives insufficient attention, especially in the comprehensive high schools.

The problems of the Division can be expressed in a single statement: It does not have a strong design for guidance in the District, a mandate to develop one, or the staff to execute it. The lack of mandate is clearly a crucial difficulty. The result is a mixed bag of programs, all looking too much like all-purpose programs which one might find in any school system, all depending too much on counselors alone, and all lacking contact with a well-staffed aggressive central office team. A school system as large as Washington's can hardly afford to leave its guidance program to whatever development takes place in individual schools, modified only slightly by efforts at orientation and supervision by a desperately understaffed central office. The guidance professionals are the proper persons to select and supervise school counselors and to plan and execute dynamic guidance programs designed for the District's unique population. At present, they have neither these functions nor the time for them.

It is recommended that the central office staff be strengthened; that it take responsibility and leadership for developing a clear-cut overall design for guidance and that it set guidelines within which the counselors can develop functional programs within the schools, appropriate to the populations served. Line authority over school counselors would continue with the school principal, as it must, but the components of responsibilities would be cleared and the directions of the program stated out.

Division of Attendance and Work Permits

The primary purpose of the Attendance Officer's work is to keep the pupil "in school and in readiness to learn." Each of the 29 Attendance Officers is assigned a geographic area and is responsible for the attendance of pupils residing therein. Two Chief Attendance Officers supervise the work. The services are intended to be diagnostic, preventive, therapeutic and legal. The kind of work the Division undertakes can be seen from its statistical report for 1965-66.

The attendance officer visits public, parochial and private schools assigned to him on a daily basis. The Compulsory Attendance Law requires reporting an absence after two full days or four half days. The officer makes home visits to ascertain factors causing persistent absence and tries to work with parents and school staffs to find solutions to attendance problems. He may prepare case histories for staff members in other services to explore the psychological, educational or emotional causes for absenteesim. The attendance officer also determines which cases should be reported to the Juvenile Court. He participates as a government witness in cases of truancy and parental violations of the attendance law.

The major problems cited by the attendance officers are: late reports by the schools, leading to delays in investigating absenteeism; unreported, informal disciplinary sus-

pensions; unauthorized exclusions from school. The extent of the problem is indicated by the fact that attendance officers worked on only 198 cases of suspended pupils under 16 years of age, out of a total of 316 suspensions known to them, including pupils who had returned before the attendance officer was even notified. The number of suspensions officially authorized by the Superintendent or Assistant Superintendent during the same period was only 37. The discrepancy between the number of authorized and unauthorized suspensions indicates a need for clearer understanding and application of suspension procedures so that the due processes of law are observed in the interests of the child and the school.

More than 15,000 minors (ages 14 to 18) obtained the required work permits from the Division in 1965-66. Two Child Labor Inspectors visit places of business to ascertain the legality of employment of minors and the conditions of work.

Table 13-5

Cases and Actions Taken by Attendance Officers, School Year 1965-66

Cases and Action Taken	Number
Reports of absences investigated by attendance officer	26,361
Illegal absences due to truancy	7,011
Illegal absences due to parental indifference	2,463
Case conferences with parents and pupils	399
Truancy complaints sent to Juvenile Court or Director of Social Work	198
Complaints against parents involving 60 children sent to Assistant Corporation Counsel at Juvenile Court	28
Referrals to Child Study Division for psychological or psychiatric evaluation in connection with non-attendance	14
Referrals to Child Welfare Division of Department of Public Welfare as without adequate parental care	15

Source: Department of Pupil Personnel Services, District of Columbia Schools.

This division is also responsible for central pupil accounting, periodic censuses of children ages 3-18 and data collection on non-resident students for use in enforcement of the Non-Resident Tuition Act. Claims for exemption from non-resident tuition occupy a considerable amount of time of the Census Supervisor and his staff. During the past year, several of these requests for exemption raised issues which can be resolved only if the Board of Education requests legislative review.

It is recommended that the Board make such a review, with firm proposals for corrective action. To begin, the Board should arrange for a thorough analysis of the

non-residents for the past 10 years to determine the bases on which requests for exemption have been accepted/rejected. Data processing procedures could facilitate such an analysis.

The implementation of the Systems Development Corporation recommendations for student accounting should give high priority to building the data bank for the school census. This ongoing operation is the kind which can easily be computerized.

The Division of Attendance and Work Permits is probably one of the most stable and best organized divisions in the Department. Considering the range and extent of problems of urban youngsters, an enlightened school social work branch may be one of the first requisites of a good program of pupil personnel services. The school attendance service can serve to launch the social work program.

It is recommended that the present concept of the attendance division as a benign enforcement agency, with a secondary social service mission, be retained at least temporarily, until such time as the department defines its school social work service.

Group Measurement Division[1/]

The Group Measurement Division is responsible for administering and scoring the tests of readiness, intelligence and achievement which constitute the District's mandatory test program. Well over 300,000 tests are administered each year and while they are mainly machine-scored, considerable time goes into hand-scoring, checking, and corrections. This division supplies schools and central office with results of tests, primarily in terms of school-by-school and system-wide medians. It carries on some special studies, minimal because of personnel shortages. At the request of building counselors and principals, the division conducts some in-service training in test interpretation.

A testing program should be judged on at least three test criteria: (1) the suitability of the tests for the population tested; (2) the use of the test results; and (3) the continuity of the program. Only on the last criterion, continuity, does the District's testing program approach an adequate standard and that, only from grade four up.

In the light of the large disadvantaged population in the District schools, the selection and interpretation of standardized tests of aptitude and achievement are especially critical. The validity of standardized tests of intelligence and aptitude and their reliability as predictors of academic performance has been the subject of increasingly heated controversy since the mid-1930's. Disadvantaged children are often handicapped in the test-taking situation itself by anxieties, lack of scholastic competitiveness and general unfamiliarity with the testing environment. The consequence often is low validity of the results as a "true" picture of what is being measured and low reliability of results from one test to another. There is no question that test validity is affected by sociocultural factors. A committee of The Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues has thoroughly analyzed these problems: reliability, predictive validity and interpretation of standardized aptitude and achievement scores of disadvantaged children. Their report concluded that such tests are still among the most important evaluative and prognostic tools available to educators. Cautioning that "the baby not be thrown out with the bathwater" while attempting to correct the misuses of tests with minority group children, the committee set forth guidelines which emphasize intelligent interpretation of results and their use for diagnostic rather than

1/ Dr. Elizabeth Hagen prepared the report on which this section is based.

prognostic purposes. The District should study these as a guide to its own selection, use and interpretation of gray tests.

The District initiated a new testing program in 1966-67. One of its aims was to overcome the defects of a rather heterogeneous collection of tests which had been used at various levels. Time of testing was shifted from late spring to early fall to permit more effective use of the results. The new sequence (except for the Special Academic Curriculum) includes:

Metropolitan Readiness Test (kindergarten and first grade)

Sequential Tests of Educational Progress: STEP Mathematics, Reading, Listening and Writing (grades 4, 6, 9 and 11)

School and College Ability Tests: SCAT (grades 4, 6, 9 and 11)

A separate sequence of tests has been used for the Special Academic Curriculum classes.

The selection of the STEP-SCAT series for a major part of the testing program represents a dubious choice. There tends to be little differential measurement with STEP-SCAT because reading achievement is a primary factor being measured with both instruments. With the heavy reading loading on both SCAT and STEP and the nature of the population used to standardize the instruments, the series is probably inappropriate for a large segment of the District pupil population. For many of the schools tested, the median score is scarcely above a chance level. At the secondary level, the series is inappropriate since the content is not related to any of the curricula taught. The lack of relationship between the tests and the curriculum makes constructive use and meaningful interpretation of the test results difficult.

Reports of interpretation are delayed, despite machine scoring. Thus, small benefit accrues to diagnosis and counseling. The test results are not well used. Evidence showed no extensive use to diagnose individual strengths and weaknesses, to counsel pupils, to improve curriculum or to plan instruction. Rather, testing served administrative and placement purposes.

The proper use of tests for counseling, diagnosis and planning, depends, of course, on the staffs and administration of the buildings. What is needed are the kinds of analyses of data and in-service education that would emphasize correct use and interpretation of scores from appropriate tests. The in-service training program of the division is necessarily restricted, bogged down as it is with clerical duties. Unless assistance is given the classroom teacher and the building principal in appropriate use of test data, the tests lose any real value and purpose. The division's paper responsibilities do include selecting appropriate tests, feeding back test results in meaningful form as quickly as possible, in order to help teachers plan and work with individuals; in reality the Division appears stymied in all of these functions.

Schools should be given test results in terms of stanines, percentiles or standard scores, not in grade equivalents. Each teacher should have a complete list of her children, together with their booklets or answer sheets, at a time when they can advance the planning for her class. The tests are valuable for diagnostic purposes but not for prognosticating. When used as forecasts, especially with a disadvantaged population, test data contribute to self-fulfilling prophecies: pupils do about as poorly as teachers expect, based on inappropriate measures.

More important, the division, in cooperation with specialists from universities

and test publishing agencies, should take the lead in developing new and more appropriate instruments and techniques for assessing individual growth and development. The reliance on paper and pencil measures, especially with a disadvantaged population, is questionable. Teachers and other program planners need procedures for judging progress which are valid, reliable and easily interpreted. Learners need to watch their own progress through self-testing materials offering immediate feedback and directions for next steps. The District should move toward the development of diagnostic procedures for instructional purposes, including a ready system which provides the individual student with relatively immediate feedback on his progress. Any serious attempt to build individualized instruction rests squarely on the availability of short-term diagnostic assessment procedures.

The District should enlarge its data processing bank to produce information on individual students and their progress. Test scoring, analysis and reporting can be handled by computer. Administrators should expand the proposed information management systems for pupil accounting and record keeping, to provide computer-access information for diagnosis, for program analysis and for curriculum planning. Obviously the development of such a computer-based system will require training of teachers and staff for its use. In orienting the staff to the data bank and accounting procedures presently planned, a base could be laid for future uses of the computer.

Special Education Placement

The Division of Special Education Placement serves as the coordinating center for children with problems which require special class placement. The division now is concerned only with placement, not with the instruction of the children nor the supervision of their teachers. The task forces recommend the inclusion of this division in a Department of Special Education. While some arguments can be advanced for the diagnoses and referrals being based with other testing and psychometric functions, there is a stronger case for integrating a placement program into the total special education process.

Parents' Consultation Service

The Parents' Consultation Service was initiated early in the school year 1965-66 to accomplish four related purposes:

> First, to solve parent problems, using the many services of the public schools and the community, if necessary; second, to interpret to parents policies of the schools; third, to coordinate activities between home and school through an effective parent education program; and, fourth, to create an atmosphere of mutual trust and empathy between home and school.

In October 1965, letters were sent to all parents of public school children inviting them to "feel free to talk to the principals, counselors and teachers whenever ... you have a problem or complaint." If, after speaking with the principal, the parent was still concerned, he was invited to call or write the coordinator of the Parents' Consultation Service. A second letter followed at the beginning of the 1966-67 school year. During the first year, 461 contacts or requests were received. Analysis of the requests is contained in Table 13-6.

In all instances, the service attempted to make immediate contact with the principal or assistant principal in the school concerned. Sometimes this contact was enough and the parents were notified. In most instances, however, other school personnel and community agencies were involved.

Table 13-6

Categories of Requests Received by Parents' Consultation Service, 1965-66

Category of Request	Number N=461
Requests for psychological evaluation (with possible further referral)	86
Pupils failing academic subjects	83
Adjustment to school environment	63
Behavior problems in school and community	54
Tutorial assistance	42
Consultative service	34
Information requests	34
Track or grade placement	26
Cards expressing satisfaction with school program	39

The small size of the Parents' Consultation Service staff of two is no indication of the importance attached to it. No other single service of the schools has been described in two consecutive annual letters for the Superintendent to the parents of all school children. The language of these letters is instructive. In its initial conception, the service was to be a clear channel for complaints and a place for resolving them. The service appeared to offer itself as a friend of the parents in any difficulties they had in achieving satisfaction at the local school level. The second letter repeats these offers, while meeting the image of a complaint service. The word "complaint" is not used and the early implication that any parent might not be satisfied after discussions with local school personnel is barely discernible. The Service appears to be shifting away from "complaint center to that of "parent education program development." Meetings have been arranged for a few small groups of parents meeting with a psychiatrist for parent counseling. The recent addition of a psychologist to the staff suggests the possible evolution of an emergency psycho-educational clinic.

The central purpose appears to waiver among several choices: (1) a "complaint bureau," or a "court of appeals" for parents; (2) the parent education arm of the school system; (3) an emergency clinic for re-evaluation of pupil placement; and (4) a psycho-educational agency concerned with improving the quality of family adjustment through group work with parents.

It is recommended that: the original function of the Parents' Consultation Service be maintained in essentially pure form and expressed in the forthright language of the earlier statements rather than in the more ambiguous "partnership" language of the second letter; that small numbers of complaints and other sharply perceived needs should not be reasons either for extending the service to include other aspects of

work with parents (as is apparently the case now) or for disbanding the service (as could become the case). The rationale for limiting the service is that adding services interferes with impartiality and obscures its true purpose for its clientele, the parents.

The general character of the inquiries should be used as a basis for suggesting activities, such as parent education programs, to be carried out -- not by the staff of the Parents' Consultation Service, nor under its aegis, but rather by other appropriate divisions or departments.

Divisional status and closeness of the Service to both the Assistant Superintendent for Pupil Personnel Services and the Superintendent of Schools should be maintained. Its favored position guarantees both that complaints will be heard and that parent education activities which suggest themselves can be implemented in ways other than directly by the Service itself.

Identification and Prevention of Potential Dropouts

The purpose of this Title I, ESEA, project is to prevent school dropouts by providing services to "identified children to overcome those physical, psychological, educational, or emotional conditions that would otherwise prevent them from benefiting to the fullest extent" from educational opportunities. Begun in January 1966, the project identified almost 25,000 children in low-income areas (annual family income of $2,000 or under) attending 91 public and non-public schools.

The Pupil Personnel Service Team consisted of two groups -- a clinical team and a Pupil Personnel Worker-Aide Team. Classroom teachers completed questionnaires which cited factors affecting early school withdrawal for each pupil displaying symptoms. The team members then conducted on-going screening of the questionnaires, school records and other data sources to identify 24,049 who displayed some of the characteristics associated with potential dropouts. After identification, a team consisting usually of a worker and two aides was assigned to work with pupils in two or three schools. Clinical personnel were assigned to five (six are projected) regional centers, consulting with the workers and aides as needed. It is intended that the staff work with pupils and their parents, with the school and other appropriate public and private agencies and groups, to assist learners. The workers and aides are supposed to function as "grass roots-neighborhood-educational workers."

Some of the activities reported by the project staff at the end of the first six months of operation were these:

1. Referred pupils to program on basis of their indicated needs.
2. Contacted parents to explain project activities and student needs.
3. Helped place students in jobs.
4. Established programs for continued diagnosis, evaluation, recommendations, referrals, home contact and follow-up.
5. Provided information to other school personnel concerning individual pupils, to facilitate adjustment.
6. Set a framework for crisis consultation and intervention.

7. Initiated therapeutic help through professional sources, including escorting pupils to clinics.

8. Encouraged participation in community activities by pupils and their parents.

9. Helped set up pilot projects at individual schools, including residential camp programs, an attendance club, a community movie project, a summer employment program.

Three mobile units were to be available for dispatch to the regions as required but these have not been made operational as yet.

This project is probably beset by more obvious problems than any other division in the Department. Begun in January 1966, it now has more than 100 staff members. Lack of professional tradition, uncertainty about functions and distribution of the many educated but un-oriented personnel are at the roots of the problems. Nevertheless, the division is able to serve students and their families in vital, unique and direct ways (such as seeing that the children and their parents avail themselves of needed social services).

However, the patrons of this division -- the potential dropouts -- are also served by other personnel and the chance for overlap is great. Effective coordination of services to 25,000 pupils is a massive, inescapable task. The large numbers of aides pose problems of in-service training and supervision. As the personnel situation stabilizes, the division must step up its training and supervising activities sharply.

The plan of action is imprecise; the objectives are quite clear but the functions of the various workers are still evolving. Given the newness of the service, the inexperience of the division's workers, the apparent autonomy of the various teams, the relatively crude methods used to identify the huge "target" population, these problems could have been anticipated. Title I programs are intended to augment existing services to disadvantaged children. Plans -- not a single plan -- for closer collaboration with other pupil personnel services must be developed and general procedures for coordination worked out. This project should retain a good deal of its autonomy and freshness of view to avoid being swallowed up by ongoing programs. In fact, in coordinating this program with other personnel services, the project could breathe new life into the regular services. Finally, a research and evaluation component must be developed to determine which functions and services do contribute to reduction of dropouts.

A Need for a Pupil Personnel Services Design

As a unit, the Department of Pupil Personnel Services has not been charged with designing an overall plan for services to handle the special guidance problems and counseling needs of the District's pupils. The present central office staff is too small, too burdened with day-by-day problems of management to engage in program design. If the department as a whole cannot be said to have a blueprint of action, the older divisions do have plans, each following its own model. For instance, the scheme for guidance services is an all-purpose, universal standard; the model for Child and Youth Study is a clinical pattern. Neither of these models has been custom tailored to the needs of youngsters growing up in impoverished urban ghettos.

The department should be staffed adequately and given responsibility for coordinating new proposals for pupil personnel services. Good ideas will be stimulated through collaboration with local colleges, universities and professional organizations covering

such aspects of program development as comprehensive plans for pupil personnel services, pre-and in-service education of staff, experimental multi-disciplinary programs, research and evaluation. A careful review of existing relationships between pupil personnel services in school and community social services should be undertaken, since referrals and exchanges represent the only joint planning. Considering the preponderance of temporary personnel in the department's various divisions, the training and supervisory programs must be given higher priority and strengthened.

The Demonstration Guidance Project in New York City and other counseling programs in disadvantaged areas proved that "more of the same" is not enough. Counseling for disadvantaged pupils calls for new kinds of relationships and services. Washington school leaders, aware of family and community disorganization, should examine the possibility of developing a new breed of school social worker as an integral part of the departmental team. The task forces urge abandonment of traditional guidance procedures and their replacement by a system-wide plan for pupil personnel services tailored to fit the District's population.

Psychological Services in the D. C. Schools[1/]

To the extent that psychological services have defined their goal, it appears to be a clinical model found commonly among the suburban middle-class schools in the 1950's. This model sees as its primary functions: (1) the early detection of emotional and behavioral difficulties; (2) their diagnosis, primarily in psychological terms; (3) the location and supply of appropriate restorative services, primarily psychotherapeutic in nature; and (4) the promotion of mental health among pupils, parents and school staff.

These goals tend to stamp psychological services with certain characteristics in the District as elsewhere: (1) heavy orientation toward the individual pupil and his family; (2) a predisposition toward psychological explanations and solutions as opposed to cultural, sociological and educational ones; (3) an emphasis on case study and report; and (4) an emphasis on the team approach and team conferences, dedicated to the study of the individual child.

This model must be judged against the current characteristics of the District's pupil population and the educational system. Over the past 10 years of so, the District's pupil population has changed drastically as has the nature of the problems. Psychological services have been swamped with referrals for diagnosis and remedial action which only an immense staff, highly skilled and backed by an enormous range of restorative services of all kinds, could hope to meet. The clinical model, if it is to work on a large scale of this kind, requires resources far beyond those which the Washington school system can command today. Back-up facilities from the entire community, including well developed lines of communication and referral for all types of treatment and placement, would support clinics, special schools, residential treatment centers, services for the acutely ill and for emergencies. To be effective, this type of large-scale public health system demands community planning and public funding; not merely local but state and federal governments must subsidize these costly establishments. Failing this, psychological services often find themselves facing impossible case loads, classifying and diagnosing, writing endless reports, perfecting recommendations which have little hope for implementation. Discouragement enters the staff, morale sinks, and the abler people leave the system or cannot be attracted to it. The problems of this model applied to the District can be replicated. It is a national lament, as demonstrated by the recent establishment of the National Advisory Commission on Health Manpower.

1/ Dr. Mary Alice White prepared the report on which this section is based.

Consideration of Alternate Models. The problems facing the current school population may be perceived as educational rather than psychological. The pressing problem is how to improve the educational attainments of this pupil population. Something in the interaction of the pupil population (with its characteristics) and the school system (with its characteristics) irritates the problem. Although psychological services should reserve part of their energies for the help of those who are seriously impaired psychologically, the majority of their efforts whould be concentrated on the common problems. This would suggest a different model -- an educational model for psychological services. This model would accept as its primary function: (1) the early detection of learning difficulties; (2) their diagnosis; (3) the application of educational remedial methods; and (4) the promotion of effective learning throughout the school system, with concern for teaching, curriculum and school organization as they bear upon learning.

These goals create certain characteristics for such services, markedly different from the earlier psychological model:

1. An orientation toward classroom learning and teaching, with retained emphasis on the individual child.

2. A predisposition toward multiple explanations for learning difficulties, including educational, sociological, psychological, organic, curricular, etc.

3. A predisposition to remedial or preventive approaches which are as versatile as the possible causes.

4. An emphasis on educational experimentation and evaluation.

5. An emphasis on collaboration with the classroom teacher and the school staff.

This model would deal with one problem now hampering psychological services: namely, the view of some school staff members that current psychological services are not relevant to the classroom or to the school. It is no solution to return a troubled pupil to a classroom with a diagnosis that strikes the teacher as simply confirming her views, and a set of recommendations which the teacher cannot carry out. Classification in itself is no solution to the problem unless some constructive action results. Since the clinical model does not have the resources to implement its prescriptions, psychological services might better concentrate on those constructive educational steps which the school and the teacher know how to take.

The task force recommends the appointment of a Chief Psychologist responsible for all professional psychological services; hiring school psychologists, training them, recommending promotion and assignment. He would be in charge of organizing and reassigning psychologists according to whatever manpower and staffing plans are adopted and of supervising the activities of other mental health professionals working in the school. In short, he would coordinate all psychological projects and personnel.

It is recommended that a small but highly qualified psychological staff be recruited and retained, dropping the present policy of hiring less qualified persons in larger numbers. More imaginative and flexible use of paraprofessionals, under the direct supervision of trained psychologists, is urged.

Current services of classification, diagnosis and referral must be critically reappraised. The emphasis on individual testing, the choice of tests, the time spent in their administration and report writing, record keeping, appropriateness of referral

are all questionable. It is proposed that a committee of psychologists and co-opted members from related divisions, including the instructional staff, should develop procedures which would maximize efforts to resolve the problems the children bring and minimize time spent on internal records, reports and paperwork.

Psychological services must systematize their interchanges of information and referral with the intricate and highly varied services available within the community. A complete survey of facilities and services should be undertaken with other community agencies; its end should be an up-to-date list and improved communication lines. The staff needs to forsake some of its classification tasks to instill hope and direction in the children whom they are now classifying. A system of emergency referral (within 24 hours) should be established for acute cases.

It is not intended that community services move into the school and turn it into a mental health clinic. The school is unique in its educational goals and all other services it provides must be secondary to its educational responsibility.

School Nursing Services [1/]

Nursing services in the District schools are provided by Department of Public Health employees in the elementary schools and school-employed murses in the high schools. This arrangement is rather unique and may have come about when the "matrons" assigned to high schools were replaced by registered nurses.

School Medical Services of the Health Department. Under its School Health Division of the Bureau of Maternal and Child Care, the Department of Health provides a variety of services to both elementary and secondary schools. These are essentially diagnostic and preventive services including cardiac, eye, hearing, pediculesis, venereal disease, mental health and immunization and vaccination clinics. Treatment is left to private medical sources except where there is a need and no financial resources.

School physicians function in the roles of health advisors, health educators and medical consultant, examining children referred for deviations and suspected illnesses. They give physical examinations for special groups, such as those participating in competitive sports or certain vocational programs (e.g., cosmetology and practical nursing). A priority schedule for physical examinations has been established in elementary and secondary schools.

Vision screening and height and weight measurements are done annually for all elementary pupils by teachers and parent volunteers. Nurses check the vision of children who fail the screening before sending referral forms home. Hearing screening is done in the junior primary (first and third grades) by department audiologists. At the secondary level, hearing is tested by the nurses with pure tone audiometers at grades seven and two. The Department undertakes placement evaluations for all pupils with severe physical or mental handicaps and makes medical recommendations for placement in special schools or classes. It maintains a School Diagnostic Clinic for study and evaluation of health problems referred by the school physicians. Minors under 16 years of age who need work permits are given the required physical examinations by a school physician.

The Department of Health also sustains a Dental Service which emphasizes prevention and education. A public health dentist is a new addition to the department's staff. Dental hygienists and public health nurses are assigned to elementary schools on differ-

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1/ Dr. Elizabeth Stobo prepared the report on which this section is based.

ent days, thus making coordinated service difficult. The inability of a good many students to secure early care for dental caries represents one of the community's unmet health needs.

School Nursing Services of the Health Department. Part-time nursing services are provided the elementary schools by the Department of Health's Division of Public Health Nursing. The nurse is enjoined "to assist members of the staff to become keen observers of health problems, to understand what to do with the results of their observations and to assist through a variety of activities in solving the problems that affect the education of the child." The public health nurse's functions include appraisal and health counseling; health and safety education; emergency care; and referrals.

There are 80 public health nurses serving the elementary schools on a part-time basis. Their part-time services represent the equivalent of 31 full-time nurses. The amount of time spent in any one elementary school varies from one to 22 hours per week. These nurses told the task force that they would like to spend more time in individual conferences with children, many of whom come from troubled homes. Their general feeling is that there is simply not enough time to provide adequate services to the disadvantaged children -- some of whom are poorly nourished, have no one at home to care for them when they become ill in school, and find it difficult to get to clinics.

School Nursing Services of the District Public Schools. At the secondary level, school-employed registered nurses care for students, with the Director of Health, Physical Education, Athletics and Safety serving as coordinator of the program. They have no nursing supervision. These full-time school nurses are responsible for health counseling; health appraisals and approved surveys; emergency care; health education; control of communicable diseases and maintenance of health records and facilities.

There are 43 nurses who work full-time in the secondary schools and five in special schools. They, too, expressed concern over lack of facilities for follow-through care for students, poor physical arrangements within the school, problems in transfer of records and lack of a direct telephone line for emergencies. In the Sharpe Health School, there is a concern for care of children who remain in wheel chairs all day without a change of position.

Medical Examinations and National Standards. The plans for medical and screening examinations correspond to the recommendations of the American Academy of Pediatrics' Committee on School Health. However, there is serious question about the implementation of these plans in the District and the availability of necessary medical services to the population. The task force listened to requests for more physician time, especially to permit health counseling for adolescent youth. The major inadequacy appeared to be in community facilities which do not permit prompt follow-through on medical problems. It was reported that the Gale Clinic, for instance, has a waiting period of several months. The geographical inaccessibility of some clinics, coupled with the long discouraging wait at some of them, makes correction of health problems difficult. Health education aspects of follow-through are reduced to a minimum.

Improvement of Nursing and Health Services. Washington, D. C. is a multi-problem city and its health problems are gross and grave. A single agency going it alone is not likely to have much impact on the situation. The focus will have to be the community welfare rather than resolution of jurisdictional disputes. There are sufficient indications that a tug of war is underway with respect to placing nursing services under the Board of Education or the Department of Health. This argument started nationally more than 50 years ago and, to date, no satisfactory answers have been found.

The absence of valid criteria on which to arrive at an objective decision probably accounts for the continuing debate. Empirical evidence indicates that the quality of school nursing services echoes the quality of nursing in the total system in which it is placed -- health department or school system.

It would be desirable to consolidate all like services under one administrative and supervisory director. In the District at this time, unfortunately, such consolidation would involve a partnership in which neither party has an interest. The focus of each of the groups at this time should be on providing highest quality nursing services to the community being served. Close cooperation and coordination of services are essential, and the appointment of a School Nurse Supervisor would be an initial step forward.

It is recommended that each agency employ a School Nurse Supervisor with identical supervisory qualifications, salary and responsibilities for the school nurses with whom they work. They should receive the same orientation program, divided between the health department and the school system. Their chief assignments would be to improve the quality of service within the agency with which they work and to coordinate the services between the department and the school. They should conduct joint studies to identify work essential to good nursing services for children (emphasizing relationships with family, teachers, specialized school personnel and community health and welfare agencies). The supervisors should also identify the non-nursing tasks which can be delegated to paraprofessional personnel.

It is recommended that all new nurses employed by either the department or the school be given identical orientation for school health work and participate fully in school-related in-service programs. By involving nurses in all schools in the total school program, health service activities can become a vital part of the school system's educational program. The In-Service Education Programs on School Health Services should be continued and expanded to constitute a forum for mutual information.

It is recommended that more public health nurses be employed in the elementary school and that their working hours be extended to enable them to give better care to individual children and to establish a team relationship with other school personnel.

It is recommended that paraprofessional aides be assigned to assist in all health rooms, releasing the nurse to work more directly with children, their families and school personnel.

It is recommended that the Board of Education establish liaison with other community agencies to plan a program for eliminating the educational system's handicaps in achieving its health care goals for its large disadvantaged population. A small but competent planning group, comprised of individuals from key public and private education, health and welfare agencies, might propose cooperative experimental and demonstration programs. These would attract funds and personnel from several sources, including ESEA, Office of Economic Opportunity, National Institutes of Health, Public Health Service, Children's Bureau and private foundations. The program would focus on the community, rather than on the source of categorical grants.

One such experimental program might establish a Community Center or Complex, in close proximity to a school, designed to provide exemplary family health services -- including medical examinations, dental facilities, nursery school care, family planning education, breakfast programs, recreation and welfare facilities appropriate to the needs. An adolescent clinic and mental health service might also be included. The Center would be a primary resource for the school, and the agencies located in the Center should anticipate full support and cooperation from the school. The facility

should be open at hours convenient to the population served, and should be readily accessible. A small shopping center would be an ideal site.

The District presently provides traditional kinds of health services in conventional manner. Its pupil population, however, comes largely from homes where health and welfare services are inadequate. While the schools must upgrade the quality of present services, they must at the same time plan unique cooperative programs under conditions which plan essential services close to the District's population. Their constant goal must be to help children arrive at school in sound physical and mental health -- every day and throughout their school years.

Speech and Hearing Services in the District[1/]

The function of the Speech and Hearing Center is to provide clinical services for pupils with oral communicative disorders and those with significant hearing impairments.

Speech and hearing clinicians are assigned to elementary and secondary schools to screen, help evaluate and provide therapy to pupils with speech disorders. Some speech therapy services are provided on a limited scale during the summer. Clinicians provide speech improvement services in schools. The Center's Speech Improvement Resource Teachers contribute to planning classroom and assembly activities. The Center also supervises the clinical experiences for qualified college students.

The Center staff consisted of 71 speech clinicians, six hearing clinicians and four Speech Improvement Resource Teachers in January 1967. Seven vacancies for speech clinicians existed. Separate licenses are required, designated as Speech Correctionists and Hearing Therapist. About half of the clinicians held temporary licenses. Of 41 clinicians who had either completed or were pursuing their master's degrees, only 21 specified a speech pathology major. The range of professional experience is from 0-22 years with half the clinicians reporting fewer than four years. Thirty-three speech clinicians reported membership in the American Speech and Hearing Association with only 20 holders of the ASHA's Certificate of Clinical Competence.

The Director estimated that approximately 10,000 pupils (about seven percent) have clinical speech or hearing problems. This estimate does not include "unacceptable speech patterns" associated with nonstandard dialect or developmental problems. During the 1965-66 school year, 5,686 children received therapy services with another 4,364 on waiting lists. In June 1966, it was estimated that in addition to those not yet identified, 7000 children would need speech or hearing therapy the following year. With only five additional therapists added to the staff, probably no more than 60 percent of the speech and hearing handicapped received attention.

Speech Services. The Speech Center provides services to pupils who have speech or language patterns which are inappropriate for their age, sex or general intellectual level, resulting in a loss of speaker intelligibility or in negative listener reaction. Oral communication disorders include misarticulation, stuttering, language delay or impairment. The Center also provides some services to children having nonstandard dialects and oral language deficiencies. According to the program's director, children in the latter categories probably comprise from 50 to 80 percent of all pupils in the District schools. The modification of such oral language patterns may be a necessary prerequisite for improved reading ability.

1/ Dr. Edward D. Mysak and staff of the Teachers College, Columbia University Department of Speech Pathology and Audiology prepared the report on which this section is based.

Speech clinicians are assigned to serve elementary and junior high schools (about 98 percent receive some services) for the entire school year. A speech clinician is assigned to each senior and vocational high school for a one semester block during the year. Speech clinicians routinely screen all second and seventh grade pupils and those on the waiting list at the beginning of the school year. All new admissions and referrals from school personnel are screened as they are received. The screening procedures used are left to the clinician's discretion with some guidelines recommended by the supervising director.

Priority for speech therapy goes first to those who received help the previous term, then to children who are older, not mentally retarded, and present a relatively favorable prognosis. The bulk of children receiving therapy are second graders. Of the 4,011 cases reported by 62 clinicians in reply to a questionnaire, well over half (2,682) had articulation disorders. The other large disorder categories included: stuttering (485), impaired or delayed language (418), foreign accent (143) and non-standard dialect (103). Only 57 children were categorized as deaf or hard-of-hearing (less than two percent of the total caseload). For the latter children, the speech clinician concentrates on increasing the child's speech intelligibility while the hearing clinician emphasizes auditory and visual training and speech reading.

Each pupil in therapy is seen twice a week, some individually, but generally in groups of from two to five. Some clinicians report groups of seven to ten children. Therapy sessions are about 30 minutes long. After the priority screenings, speech clinicians divide their time roughly as follows: 70 percent to therapy, 21 percent to conferences and record keeping and 9 percent to speech improvement (i.e., correction of non-standard dialect within classroom situations). Presently, each clinician spends 30 minutes daily conducting speech improvement activities in second and seventh grade classrooms, assisted by the Speech Improvement Resource Teachers.

There were three special programs. In one, two clinicians provide services to Severely Mentally Retarded children and, in addition, directed workshops for their teachers. A second program, begun in February 1967, added a speech clinician to provide services in parochial schools. The third project involved eight clinicians and two student clinicians who provided therapy services to 271 children during the 1966 six-week summer school.

Since the clinicians are itinerant, they seldom have rooms assigned for their own use but share space with other personnel. Twelve new schools provide two-room suites for clinicians. Audiovisual equipment for clinicians was in very short supply, with the few tape recorders and auditory trainers carried from one school to another. Even clinical forms and therapy materials must be duplicated or created at the individual schools.

Hearing Services. The three major functions of the hearing program involve (1) identification of children with medically and/or educationally significant hearing impairments; (2) audiological evaluation and medical referral, and (3) provision of therapy and aid.

Responsibility for identifying children with hearing impairments lies with the Audiology and Speech Pathology Service of the District's Department of Public Health, located in the Gales Clinic. Some additional hearing and speech services are provided at the Crippled Children's Unit of the D. C. General Hospital. Service at Gales is provided by a chief, two staff audiologists, a supervisor, a hearing technician and several pathologists. The total caseload in 1966 at Gales was 2,998.

Screening is conducted by a hearing technician who spends full time in the field. Two staff audiologists spend one day bi-weekly in the field. Some graduate students assist in identification as well. Public school nurses have responsibility for screening children in seventh and tenth grades. In 1965-1966, 41,852 pupils were screened in junior primary, first, third, seventh and tenth grades. Of this total, 1,426 pupils (3.4 percent) failed. Children failing the screening test are scheduled for audiologic evaluations and otolaryngological examination at the Gales Clinic. Actually, only about 70 percent of those who failed are seen at Gales and, of this group, roughly two-thirds of those in need of otolaryngological examinations actually receive one. About 90 percent of those examined are treated for impacted cerumen or have foreign objects removed from their ears. Additional treatment, if required, must be arranged for by the family. Thus, approximately half of the children failing the audiometric screening receive no audiological follow-up or otolaryngological examination.

The total number of children seen at Gales who have medically irreversible hearing losses is 75 to 100 a year. These children need hearing aids, special educational programs and/or hearing therapy. Hearing aids are obtained through Maternal and Child Health funds. Children in this category are placed in one of three programs; the hearing therapy program, the hearing conservation program or Kendall School.

Four of the clinicians have master's degrees with emphasis in education of the deaf. Two have 17 years experience each; three less than five years of professional experience. The hearing therapy program, staffed by six clinicians, provides rehabilitative services to hard-of-hearing children attending regular schools. The clinicians implement the recommendations for the Public Health Audiology and Speech Pathology Service. The hearing clinicians determine priorities for children needing their services, how the Health Department's recommendations should be implemented and when the child should be discharged. They visit 62 schools and provide 30 to 60 minute therapy sessions two or three times weekly.

The hearing clinicians initiated a hearing survey program in 1964-65. This survey was undertaken to supplement the Health Department's screening since too few hearing-impaired children were being identified. The results of the hearing survey have not been altogether satisfactory. Again, since clinicians are itinerant, they share space at the schools they serve. They lack adequate diagnostic and therapy materials, including auditory training equipment. Approximately 150 children receive therapy from clinicians who appear to be well qualified but who work under conditions which curb their effectiveness. The hearing conservation and Kendall School programs are discussed in the chapter on special education programs and services.

Recommendations for Improving Speech and Hearing Services. The most pressing problems faced by the Speech and Hearing Center include personnel recruitment, speech evaluation and therapy services, speech improvement, facilities and equipment.

With four professional training programs in colleges and universities in the District, it is ironic that vacancies exist in the department. Several pre-professional programs are also available.

It is recommended that joint programs be established for the training of student clinicians in the District schools and for planning in-service training for Speech and Hearing Center personnel. Such joint programs would facilitate recruitment and provide supervised practicum experience at the same time.

It is recommended that at least four more supervisory personnel be added. The present ratio of one supervisor to 35 speech clinicians is a serious problem in view

of (1) the high turnover of staff, (2) the generally inadequate level of professional training evidenced by the staff, (3) the system's official ratio of a supervisor for each 25 itinerant teachers and (4) a projected need of 150 speech clinicians.

Despite the fact that pupils are presently given two speech therapy sessions per week, there are many children who need a more intensive speech therapy program, one which would include other specialists as well. There is also a need for regular re-evaluations and periodic assessments.

It is recommended that six area speech and hearing centers be set up in different schools, each to contain adequate therapy, reception and administrative space.

It is recommended that additional, regular after-school and summer facilities be provided where children and their parents could meet for testing, therapy and conferencing. Limiting the work of the centers to school hours causes hardships, especially when conferences with parents are required. The summer program should be expanded and used as a time for conducting pilot clinical research.

The present licensing requirements appear to be indefensible in view of the clinician's responsibilities and are inadequate in terms of the standards established by the American Speech and Hearing Association regarding clinical competency.

It is recommended that the ASHA requirements for a Certificate of Clinical Competence be established as the base for licensing and that special temporary licenses be issued permitting the individual a maximum of three years to satisfy these requirements. The District should consider ways of aiding the teacher while upgrading her competences. At least a total of 150 speech clinician positions should be created to meet the needs of an estimated 10,000 pupils (6.6 percent) requiring speech and hearing services.

Small numbers of children categorized as having foreign accent and non-standard dialects are presently included in the clinicians' caseload. This aspect of speech service should be dropped until high school unless it is adequately staffed to provide a workable program.

It is recommended in view of the importance of the need, that adequate staff be provided to deal seriously with modification of nonstandard dialects where they seriously affect the child's development and eventual career mobility.

It is recommended that since the present speech improvement program has had minimal success, a multi-disciplinary effort be made to plan a program of speech and oral language development to begin in the early childhood years and continue through the grades. As pilot projects are developed and tested, these should be disseminated to other schools and staff members.

The hearing program has a number of serious defects which stem from the gaps in screening, the failure to follow up referrals, the lack of adequate facilities, and inefficient use of manpower. The hearing screening program should be expanded to include second and fifth grades. The present school-operated hearing survey program should be discontinued because it is inefficient, uses inadequate techniques, duplicates the Health Department's program and consumes valuable clinician time.

It is recommended that children with special problems such as mental retardation, emotional disturbances and physical handicaps be given hearing screening tests prior to placement in special education. Children enrolled in speech therapy should also

receive formal hearing tests. A child with a severe hearing problem may manifest other symptoms and be incorrectly placed.

It is recommended that a research program be undertaken to study critical aspects of the program. For example, why is the incidence of stuttering in District schools out of line with prevalence figures in other studies? How effective is the speech improvement program? There are many aspects of the speech and hearing programs which should be studied in depth; a research program is badly needed.

Other recommendations regarding provisions for the hearing impaired are discussed in the chapter on special education. The placement of speech and hearing programs vis-a-vis special education programs is a controversial issue among professionals in the field. While provisions for the deaf and hard-of-hearing have always been considered areas of exceptionality which are in the domain of special education, the link between speech and hearing has resulted in this field developing along parallel lines. The issue can be resolved administratively but should be done with the welfare of the children of the District of Columbia in mind.

In Conclusion

An urban disadvantaged population poses particular challenges to the school system with regard to pupil personnel and welfare needs. The personnel services must range far beyond the guidance counselor assisting the student in planning for an appropriate college preparatory program. The District's pupil population brings into the school setting psychological, social, welfare, health and related needs which are intense and critical. They directly affect the school's potential for attaining its educational goals. The recommendations detailed above propose some new and some modified models for pupil personnel and welfare service roles for the District's schools.

Chapter 14

Vocational-Technical, Adult and Continuing Education[1/]

The facilities for vocational-technical education in the District are insufficient and the services are severely hampered. At the present time, almost twice as many individuals apply annually for admittance to the vocational program as the facilities can handle even when overused.

The District of Columbia maintains five vocational high schools. Two are all male, two are female and one is coeducational. All offer three-year programs leading to high school diplomas and shop certificates.

Pupil membership in day vocational high schools has been relatively stable over a ten year period, as shown in Table 14-1. Around 12 percent of all secondary schools are

Table 14-1

Pupil Enrollment in Day Programs in Vocational High Schools

School Year	Pupil Membership	Increase or Decrease	% of Increase or Decrease
1957-58	2,388		
1958-59	2,389	+ 1	+ .1
1959-60	2,186	- 203	- 8.5
1960-61	2,274	+ 88	+ 4.0
1961-62	2,608	+ 334	+ 14.7
1962-63	2,688	+ 80	+ 3.1
1963-64	2,924	+ 236	+ 8.8
1964-65	2,894	- 30	- 1.0
1965-66	2,858	- 36	- 1.3
1966-67	2,897	+ 39	+ 1.4

Source: Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation Office of the Statistical Analyst.

1/ Dr. Joseph T. Nerden prepared a report on vocational-technical education which served as the basis for this section.

involved in vocational and technical education in preparation for entering the world of work, a proportion far lower than Washington needs in personnel to replace and to man an expanding economy, and a number which excludes many pupils who could profit from such an education.

The demand for vocational education and one measure of need is evidenced by the fact that as many applicants are denied admission each year as are accepted into the day programs. Those not accepted attend senior high schools with very limited vocational programs or leave school.

The rate of dropout from vocational high schools is relatively high. During the school year 1965-66, 709 students left their vocational training program for one reason or another (Table 14-2.) Among the reasons given for disillusion, "lack of interest" and "economic" were given as major causes.

Table 14-2

Reasons Given by Students for Early Withdrawal From
Day Vocational High Schools, 1965-66

Reasons Given		Number
To work or military service		331
Employment	312	
Military Service	19	
Reasons other than employment or military service		378
Lack of interest	105	
Economic reasons	101	
Serious illness or pregnancy	81	
Poor attendance	35	
Subjects too difficult	27	
Family problems	18	
Marriage	5	
Commitment to institutions	4	
Disciplinary action	2	
Total Drop-outs		709

Source: Department of Vocational Education

One view of early leaving from vocational programs is not entirely negative since many of the young people are equipped with job skills and are ready to enter the economy as producers. In that sense, they were not dropouts but early entries into the vocational field with limited marketable skills. Some do continue vocational training in the adult and evening schools and ultimately obtain a high school diploma. However most do not and the employment level for which they are trained is relatively low and low-paid.

Table 14-3 provides data on the scope of the apprentice training program over a 10 year period. The variation in apprentice training enrollments can be attributed to changing industrial conditions: fluctuation in the economy and the production of goods is soon reflected in the labor force and subsequently in the need for apprentices.

Table 14-3

Number of Apprentices Receiving Supplementary Training, 1955-65

	1955 1956	1958 1959	1959 1960	1960 1961	1961 1962	1962 1963	1963 1964	1964 1965	1965 1966
Automobile & Diesel	19								
Carpenters	166	203	247	314	241	220	321	306	298
Electricians	113							71	92
Painters, etc.	27	37	22						
Plumbers & Seamfitters	163								
Reinforced Concrete Construction Workers							32	20	14
Sheetmetal Workers	77	103	115	61	13		3	2	4
Steel & Iron Workers	64	45	20	34	37	25	18	14	12
Welders	45								
Operating Engineers		43	30	44	33	32	81	71	47
Plasterers & Lathers		53	33	31	22	23	32	24	16
Glaziers		13	16						
Diesel				75	56				
Printing			28	22		18	3	3	3
Total	674	497	511	581	402	318	490	511	486

Source: Office of the Assistant Superintendent in Charge of Industrial Education, Adult Education and Summer Schools.

The District provided manpower training for nearly 3,900 individuals over a four-year period. Selection of trainees and job placement are the responsibilities of the District's Labor Department. Cooperation among the schools, labor and management, enables a large percentage of trainees to be absorbed in appropriate employment. (See Table 14-4.)

Table 14-4

Manpower Enrollment and Placement by Occupations,
October 1962 to December 1966

Area	Number Enrolled	Male	Female	Placement by Percentage
Service Station Salesmen	66	66		83
Clerk-Typist (Refresher)	539	11	528	99
Practical Nurse, Licensed	268	16	252	100
Cooks, Hotel-Restaurant	134	113	21	94
Service & Maintenance Workers	225	151	74	90
Clerk-Typist (Beginner)	219	3	216	99
Clerk-General	99		99	30
Typewriter Repair	47	47		60
Auto Mechanic Helper	188	188		96
Duplicating Machine Operator	78	59	19	66
Food Service Workers	86	5	81	60
Dry Cleaning	239	218	21	94
Waitress/Cashier	66		66	40
Electrical Appliances	321	321		90
Programmer, Entry	36	32	4	98
Electronic Key Punch Operator	202	24	178	99
Graduate Nurse (Refresher)	73		73	50
Dental Assistants	52		52	80
Public Buildings Housekeeper	112	93	19	45
Conversion Teacher Program	4	1	3	100
Drafting	2	2		100
Pre-Apprentice (Bricklayers)	236	236		100
Hotel Workers	93	59	34	60
Furniture Refinishing & Upholstering	56	56		60
Institutional Housekeeper	32	29	3	100
Laundry Workers	12	8	4	100
Tailoring-Alterations	43	10	33	55
TV Service and Repairmen	15	15		-
Medical Laboratory Assistants	43	7	36	-
Clerk-Stenographer	50		50	100
Basic Education (Multiple Occupation)	186	186		-
OJT Pre-Apprentice (Bricklayers)	73	73		-
Total	3895	2029	1866	

Source: District of Columbia Public Schools Manpower Development and Training Division, December 9, 1966.

The District's Vocational Institutions

The M. M. Washington Vocational High School enrolls about 575 full-time girls in its day school. Because of lack of space the school rejects about as many girls annually as it accepts. The building is old and devoid of almost all amenities needed for a full educational program. Crowded classrooms and laboratories, unrelieved by ordinances which prevent the use of some of the facilities for educational purposes, restrict the program. A practical nursing training program which normally would have been conducted at the school has been shifted to the Armstrong Adult Center. Because of an ordinance which required regular District personnel to staff the cafeteria, using this facility for the training of young people in the field of quantity food production was barred. The school also enrolls 450 evening school students, many of whom are employed and seeking upgrading of their proficiency.

The normal offerings are as follows: Bookkeepers, Clerk-typist, Medical Secretary, Distributive Education, Dyeing and Cleaning, Cosmetology, Dressmaking, Food Trades, Household Operations, Practical Nursing, Tailoring, and Vocational Housekeeping.

The Bell Vocational High School is a crowded 500-student, all-male high school which serves 500 additional students in the evening adult and extension programs. The day-time enrollment includes only 11 percent white students while over 90 percent of the evening students are white adults. The school places over 80 percent of its graduates upon completion of their programs in one of the 14 areas of the vocational and technical study. Although each of the areas is well attended by full-time day students, flexibility is impossible. The equipment selected for the several areas seems to be of high quality, in reasonably good repair and adequate for training purposes. Electronic technology at the thirteenth and fourteenth year levels is provided a very small number of students. The offerings at Bell Vocational included: Automobile Mechanics, Body and Fender Work, Cabinet and Millwork, Diesel Engine, Electrical Shop, House Wiring, Industrial Electronics, Machine Shop, Paint Shop, Paper Hanging, Plumbing, Printing (Letter Press and Offset), Sheet Metal, Upholstery, and Welding.

Phelps Vocational High School has a 700 pupil enrollment and a curriculum of 18 vocational and technical training programs. Like the others, this school is extremely crowded (the cafeteria is used as a classroom for six to eight periods daily) and has to refuse admission to many applicants. Physical education resources are limited. Phelps does have a new $250,000 facility for training personnel for landscape architecture and development, floriculture and horticulture. This program now enrolls 60 day students and 150 in the evening and adult extension program and is expected to increase swiftly. The holding power of the school overall is roughly 60 percent, with 15 percent of its graduates seeking higher education.

The school now provides considerable remedial work in the basic skills and a new program in management of small businesses. This latter course is aimed at helping graduates of trade and industrial programs who want to acquire the skills associated with sales, marketing and distribution. The barber shops in the schools are conducted in cooperation with the D. C. Village. Many of the students in the building trade areas such as carpentry and masonry are given the opportunity for outside jobs (on a cooperative basis) for a few months each year. Many of the landscaping projects have to do with public buildings, thus enabling the faculty and students to link the learning activity to reality.

The instruction at Phelps Vocational High School includes the following: Automatic Transmissions, Automobile Repair and Service, Automobile Rebuilding and Refinishing, Barbering, Brick Masonry, Advanced Building Construction, Drafting, Carpentry and Mill-

work, Electrical Service, Maintenance and Repair, Gasoline Powered Equipment, Landscape Gardening, Machine Shop Practice, Printing (Letter-Press/Offset), Radio-Television Service, Shoe Repairing, and Tailoring.

The Burdick Vocational High School enrolls 585 girls. Built around 1930 with a projected capacity enrollment of 312, it is obviously extremely pinched for space: of the 645 girls who applied for September 1966, only 225 could be accepted.

The school has a good placement record, for almost 90 percent of its graduates find appropriate employment. No evening school programs are offered at the school. The offerings at Burdick include the following: Clerk-Typist, Cosmetology, Adult Dressmaking, Food Trades, Secretarial Training, Nursery Assistant, Office Machines, Practical Nursing, and Retailing.

Chamberlain Vocational High School is coeducational; there are 552 full-time day students plus 189 evening students. The school reported a placement level of around 89 percent. The occupational instructors are urged to place the graduates and placement coordinators are employed. Plans are underway to expand the Chamberlain with a two floor addition. Space is so limited that an old shower room is used for a classroom, and the small auditorium is used for a gymnasium. The offerings at Chamberlain Vocational High School include programs in the following areas: Advertising Art, Baking, Barbering, Clerk-Typist, Cosmetology, Drafting, Electrical Appliances, Lithography, Office Machines, Photography, Radio-Television, Refrigeration, Retailing, Secretarial Training, Typewriter Repair, and Watch Repair.

The Armstrong Adult Center, originally designed as the manual training school for the District, later converted to veteran training and still later was converted into an adult education center. It operates all day, serving approximately 1400 people (half of them women) throughout the week. Among those enrolled in its wide range programs are 120 persons subsidized under the provisions of the Educational Opportunities Act. Funds from Title V of that act provide opportunities for individuals to enroll in short-term training programs designed to prepare them as clerks, typists and bookkeeping helpers. Many of the graduates have been able to qualify for government posts by achieving the required 45 words per minute. Additional programs in the Center are conducted under the Manpower Development and Training Act. A 95 percent placement record is normal. At the close of an eight week bricklaying program, all graduates were employed. The Center also has an electronic computer used to train individuals for a wide range of opportunities in the data processing and the computer programming field. All of the space in the Armstrong Center is being used to advantage and, while there appears to be adequate space to carry on its programs during the day (about 400 attend them), evening programs jam the facilities. Because of the crowded conditions in other vocational buildings, the facilities of the Armstrong Adult Training Center are pressed into use throughout the day for programs attached to other schools.

Vocational-Technical-Occupational Center. In 1965, after an intensive study, Odell MacConnell Associates prepared educational specifications for a vocational-technical-occupational center to house 5000 day students in grade levels 10-12, with additional accommodations for post-high school youth and adult education programs. The enrollment picture for vocational high schools projected at the time was stabilized at 2,900 but represented a figure which was limited by the available facilities rather than the demand or the need. The vocational-technical-occupational center for which the schematic drawings were prepared, represented an immediate need for the District. Its implementation is still unclear as the new Washington Technical Institute takes shape and [illegible] to implement two-year courses of post-secondary vocational training. Whatever [illegible] relationships develop between the new Washington Technical Institute and the District vocational program, it is quite clear that now and in the immediate future, large numbers

of youngsters who could profit from vocational and technical training have nowhere to enroll. The overall racial composition in day programs in the vocational schools is 95 percent Negro. A consolidated Vocational-Technical-Occupation Center might attract a little better racial balance, although this is speculative.

Vocational School Needs. The general image, according to faculty and the administration, is that programs are for lower ability youngsters and that the facilities are poor -- even less adequate than those in the senior high schools -- and that they are not very attractive. Yet, the task force found a high level of morale throughout the vocational system. Teachers appeared to be devoted and dedicated to their work and exhibited a sense of pride and accomplishment in the preparation of youth and adults for the world of work. Curriculum builders have tried to upgrade instruction and by introducing real-life experiences into vocational-technical experiences, have brought the school, the instructors, the supervisors and administrators into close contact with the potential employers. Craft, advisory, consulting and occupational task force committees constantly expand, integrate and assist real-life activities as part of the vocational-technical program.

From 85 to 90 percent of all the vocational high school graduates are placed in work situations upon graduation and immediately put their training to use. For all the vocational high schools, the placement at the end of 1966 was 93 percent. However, the holding power is approximately 56 percent for the vocational schools as a whole, not as good as that of the general senior high school.

The schools have made available reading laboratories and clinics in order to upgrade student competence. In spite of the fact that the vocational schools apparently receive 60 percent of their enrollment from the "slow learner" category, relatively few discipline problems are reported in the vocational schools compared with senior high schools. Faculty members believe that vocational-technical high schools could make contributions to more able youth as well, given facilities, staffing and operating funds. Most faculty members looked hopefully toward the projected vocational-technical-occupational center as one means of achieving this, but this no longer seems likely to be developed. The lack of auditoriums, cafeterias, physical education facilities and other common plant features tends to make "second class" citizens of the vocational enrollees.

Modern vocational-technical education requires an appropriate and well-staffed library. Throughout the vocational high schools there is little visible evidence of adequately stocked or staffed libraries or instructional resources centers. Tight space, inadequate shelving and display facilities, as well as limited funds for staffing and materials, explains this deficiency.

Vocational-technical educators feel that the industrial arts, home economics, guidance and occupational information programs are meagre, depriving junior high school students of occasions to assess the opportunities available to them in the world of work and in the professions. Because there are too few chances to explore the industrial arts; because only a handful of girls are touched by the home economics program; and because of the many communication problems in reaching all of the students and their parents with occupational information, many students who might otherwise qualify for vocational and technical opportunities never learn about them.

Strengthening the Program. There are now three different boards which deal with separate aspects of vocational-technical-occupational education. The Board of Higher Education, the Board of Vocational Education and the Board of Education. Until such time as there is careful delineation and coordination, the faculties and the staff will continue to be uncertain about directions which the programs of the District schools should take. There is obviously a strong need for a secondary-level vocational-technical program and coordination is a prerequisite.

Approximately 12 percent of the total enrollment of secondary school youths is in the vocational high schools. Present projections indicate that the total secondary school enrollment will go up to perhaps 22,600 students with the same number of vocational school students (2900) provided for in the same buildings. There will be a slight expansion through the addition to Chamberlain. This means that even a smaller proportion of secondary students will be vocationally trained in the next few years, unless changes are made. A new consolidated vocational-technical-occupational center providing for 5000 students would double the present capacity and serve many students who are turned away. However, it is clear that alternative approaches must be sought, how the secondary schools relate to the technical institute and the two-year programs at the Federal City College will determine success or failure in meeting the vocational-technical needs.

Apprenticeship training as part of the service extended to employers may be one of the functional reasons for the growth of industrial occupations in the Washington area. Industries give considerable attention to the preparation of new employees, as well as to the opportunities for retraining and advancement. The provision of extension training activities, manpower training activities and other such programs is important in equipping individuals for a first job and in helping others to update or upgrade themselves.

During 1966-67, the District of Columbia expended approximately $405,923 for the improvement of facilities and for the employment of additional vocational-technical personnel. Part of this expenditure was reimbursable under the provisions of the Federal Vocational Acts. However, such stop-gap expenditures do not enlarge the capacity of student enrollment. Since twice as many youth apply to vocational high schools as are accepted, expenditures on such a scale will not result in long-range solutions to the problems of program development and enrollment.

The vocational-technical faculty has been concerned with the need for exploratory experiences in ninth grade programs. At Bell Vocational High School, for example, young people are familiarized with the wide variety of occupational training in the school. Anecdotal records kept during their experiences support much occupational information and guidance. Upon this foundation, students at the end of the tenth grade are better situated to make a valid occupational choice.

Finally, vocational education is not administered and supervised by one department. Some vocational home economics, distributive education and business office machine courses are conducted in these senior high schools under separate supervision.

Development of Vocational-Technical Education. The major decisions facing the schools have to do with the availability of vocational-technical programs, the nature of these programs and the consolidation of vocational programming in the projected Vocational-Technical-Occupational Center. Studies have been made indicating the breadth of offerings which might be scheduled in the latter, whose anticipated capacity is 5000 pupils. This would nearly double the present enrollment and would help the District to provide vocational opportunities for approximately one-fourth of its total secondary school enrollment. The consolidated school should anticipate rising percentages of youth who require vocational and/or technical preparation and must plan accordingly.

As conceived originally, the Vocational-Technical-Occupational Center would have served an urgent need in the District for training students aged 15 through 18, as well as post graduates. Although it had received the approval of the Board of Education, the Center was drastically altered and transformed into the new Washington Technical Institute, which will educate high school graduates and adults. Its reduced capacity is only 2500.

Hopefully, the Washington Technical Institute, which will develop its own facilities and determine its own programs, will seek consciously to mesh these with vocational-technical-occupational education for the District as a whole. In creating its programs, the Institute must beware of, in effect, downgrading the present vocational-technical high schools into training depots for service-type occupations. Unfortunately, many young District youths tend to believe that this level of vocational education is the only part of the total program now open ot them. The task will be to identify those courses offered in the vocational high school which should be extended in the Washington Technical Institute; at the same time the Institute should initiate new vocational and technical fields of training based on projected needs of industry.

Two of the vocational schools have already embarked upon the program of expansion, and building additions are either in process or will soon be under construction. These will help, if only for a short period. The complete landscape architecture and horticulture program at Phelps will probably be continued, rather than be duplicated at the Technical Institute.

In the total vocational and technical education program anticipated for the Technical Institute, steps should be taken to match the levels of vocational and/or technical education with the predictable needs of the clientele to be served. This may mean short-term training and service opportunities for those whose interests are in that direction. However, for those whose capabilities could move them into the fields of technician training, provisions should be made for instruction at this level. Further, the vocational-technical programs should provide for a full program of distributive education occupations, business machine and office occupations as well as preparations for new jobs that bridge traditional vocational services.

It should be made clear to students selecting a vocational or technical program that future employment in the District is not a requirement for enrollment. Since training for employment in a broad geographical area is an accepted principle in vocational planning, every effort should be made to provide individuals with opportunities to prepare for occupations which may not yet exist in the District but for which employment may be found elsewhere or for which employment may emerge.

Every indication points to the need for far more scientific and technical instruction in the vocational-technical high school to prepare individuals for the occupations of tomorrow. With the present space and facilities, teaching of science and mathematics is woefully weak in the technical program. Science instruction should include work in such fields as metallurgy, materials testing and heat treating. Science and mathematics instruction is particularly weak presently and facilities almost nonexistent.

A rapidly growing field of employment is work-oriented home economics. Spreading housing developments, convalescent homes and similar areas indicate future employment in these fields in the metropolitan Washington area. One of the high schools should undertake development of employment-oriented home economics programs.

The male vocational high school programs earmark time and effort for the cadet program. Admirable as is this tradition, it is not clear that the vocational-technical program can afford the cadet program which cuts into more practical study areas. The task force recommends prompt action to reassess the value of the cadet training in the vocational program. If physical development of young men is the rationale for such training, then each school should take steps to develop a complete physical education program. This will require adequate gymnasiums and peripheral facilities.

Parts of the vocational-technical program should be related and articulated.

Because drafting and blueprint reading are essential to most technical occupations, electricity and welding for automotive mechanics and welding for carpentry, provisions for such shop-related instruction is needed. At the present time, staff and space shortages prohibit these related studies in depth.

The several boards involved in vocational-technical education should develop both terminal and open-ended programs. Thus, graduates of the vocational high school could move on to the Technical Institute in larger numbers, if they so wish. By the same token, should they wish to go directly to work the instructional programs will have prepared them for such a possible choice. Thus, it will be possible for boys who complete such programs as machine shop training or mechanical drawing to qualify for entrance into the Technical Institute for technology. Program planners should identify the various courses required to accommodate the needs and capabilities of clientele served: short-term training in service occupations for those whose bent is in that direction; fuller training in more demanding areas; technical training for those with greatest capabilities. A fuller program is needed for the distributive, business and office occupations as well as for those emerging operations such as computer technology and electronics.

Training programs in the areas of health and paramedical services provide opportunities for individuals to qualify as practical nurses, operating room technicians, dental assistants, medical secretaries and other technical aids. An excellent network of cooperating relationships with affiliated hospitals in the District has been built up which makes possible the required clinical experiences for the enrollees. For the employed health-oriented personnel in the community, supplementary evening and adult programs lead to advancement and upgrading of skills. The health and paramedical services are of such importance in the District that a recognized training center ought to offer a full training program. With the broad paramedical field, interrelationships are strong among the various occupations and could benefit from coordination under one roof. This fine sector of the system could serve as a model for other branches.

The existing system fails to give adequate vocational education and manpower development training to youth in the District. Most vocational education courses do not articulate with elementary and secondary preparation with apprenticeship programs, with technical training, and with distributive and business education.

The separation of educational and occupational skill development has raised various questions about the validity of separate vocational schools which must of necessity duplicate facilities for the general education portion of the learner's total program. When coupled with the developments of new technology and the need for new kinds of technicians, the whole premise for separating, on which present vocational programs operate, is called into question.

Skills Development Centers. The District has several alternatives with respect to its vocational-technical program. It could expand and develop the present vocational high schools to care for the large numbers who would profit from this experience but are denied admission now. On the other hand, it could develop a vocational-technical-occupational center according to educational specifications proposed by the Odell McConnell Associates, substantially modified to take into account the Washington Technical Institute. Or, it could develop a new relationship between the senior and vocational high schools with the latter becoming Skills Development Centers.

It is recommended that the current vocational high school plants be reconceived as Skills Development Centers, completely articulated with the present academic high schools. Thus, the latter would become comprehensive high schools. Many of the students in the

academic high schools need vocational-technical education while those in vocational schools certainly need a sound general education. A comprehensive program holds a promise for both groups. It is in the general curriculum portion of the program that the secondary schools have been weakest. The general education program so essential for today's challenge would operate in the school best equipped to provide it. Vocational-technical-occupational portions would function at centers equipped for this. A student would spend variable times at each skills center, as determined by his individual schedule. This proposal is made in the belief that vocational preparation is essential for all students. It may be deferred to junior college for some, to graduate school for a minority, or it may begin in the junior high school for others.

The President's Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education, in writing the basic documents which led to the passage of the Vocational Education Act of 1963, underscored the need for tomorrow's worker having a sound general education which will give him the knowledge, the skill and the flexibility with which he needs to learn new techniques and to adapt to new jobs.

Vocational education for the future has to react positively to swift changes and to expect larger intellectual components in most people's work. Preparation must deal with not only distributive education, secretarial training, trade and industrial programs but also with the development of educated technicians in areas such as engineering, medicine and social work. Some of these vocations will require post-secondary school training covering a whole range of curricula.

The insights emerging from several studies (including the Career Pattern Study) have raised questions about the present practice of requiring youngsters to make decisions about future programs too early. Work-orientation experiences can start in the seventh grade and act, to some extent, as the framework for instruction in general education as well. Students can be introduced to the world of work, investigating how people earn a living, how different kinds of work intermesh in community life, how personal satisfactions come from doing a job well. They can be taught basic skills of preparing for employment. They can learn about the avenues to special training programs and apprenticeships. They can be taught to face and to cope with discriminatory tactics, drawing upon legal and quasi-legal sources for help in these areas.

By developing stronger general education and vocational programs, the District schools will be tackling the perennial problem of a curriculum for youngsters who are presently neither college-bound nor vocationally-trained but in limbo in a "general" program. Marion Feldman had argued that the schools assume the mission of career preparation for two reasons:

1. The integration of career consciousness throughout the schools will actually enlarge, not reduce, the number of options and alternatives for individual pupils -- both in terms of occupation and high education.

2. The work world is a valid component of academic content for all children -- a powerful instrument for advancing relevance in the teaching of all subjects, academic as well as "vocational," and, in a fundamental sense, concurrent with liberal education.[1]

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[1] Feldman, Marvin J. "Public Education and Manpower Development," Paper presented at the Sixth Work Conference on Curriculum and Teaching in Depressed Areas at Teachers College, Columbia University, June 27, 1967.

There is real question as to whether the present organization for vocational education can reach large numbers of youth, particularly those from low-income areas. The Job Corps, the various programs under the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Juvenile Delinquency Prevention projects, and similar agencies and institutions have now begun to accumulate experiences which should be explored for alternative approaches to the standard vocational and general educations of low-income youths.

One innovation in the Vocational Education Act of 1963 was the authorization for an experimental school in the District area to demonstrate "the feasibility and desirability of residential vocational education schools for certain youths of high school age." The law further stated that the commissioner should give "special consideration to the needs of large urban areas having substantial numbers of youths who have dropped out of school or are unemployed..." This project has never been funded and the Board of Education should pursue the possibilities of financing at this time.

The possibility of extending the work-study programs for a variety of persons, youths, young adults and adults should be studied, not just the programs for a three-year vocational high school. The Vocational Education Act also provided for area schools. It is recommended that the District explore the possibilities of developing such programs in highly technical skills, particularly those in short supply in the federal area. A state plan is essential for receiving monies from the Vocational Education Act of 1963 and presumably has been submitted by the District.

Business and Distributive Education[1/]

The rising aspirations of youth in Washington, D. C. are realistic if viewed against the growing need for skilled manpower in the Nation's Capitol. What is not realistic, however, is the notion that these aspirations can be attained with little change in effort. In the case of the Washington schools, considerable effort seems a prerequisite to achieving a high quality vocational program in business fields.

Washington is a town of paperwork. While many professional people are needed, the town continues to need many young workers with relatively simple skills. Positions such as typists, clerks, machine operators, and salesclerks require no more education and training than that which could be provided by a high quality secondary school. The significance of business education to the future of the students should provide sufficient incentive for supporting a sound educational program in these areas.

Curriculum in the Senior High Schools. Business education courses are found in all the high schools. The range of courses offered varies somewhat, as is shown in Table 14-5. All high schools offered two years of typewriting; but only six offered Advertising and Display and Merchandising at least once during the three-year period. All schools offered Bookkeeping I but only five offered Bookkeeping II.

For the school year 1964-65, the pupil enrollments in business education courses totaled 11,844. Only Physical Education, English, and Social Studies enrollments exceeded the pupil enrollments in Business Education.

1/ Dr. Mary Ellen Oliverio prepared the report on which this section is based.

Table 14-5

Enrollments in Business Courses in Comprehensive High Schools
1963-64, 1964-65, 1965-66

Course	Number of Schools (N=11)	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66
Clerical-Stenographical				
Typewriting I	11	2,071	2,154	2,208
Typewriting II	11	1,633	1,784	1,743
Typewriting III	2	-	66	112
Shorthand	11	782	877	734
Transcription	10	225	244	241
Office Practice	8	643	475	592
Office Machines	10	664	782	679
Filing	3	396	410	446
Stenotype	1	-	-	21
Bookkeeping & Record Keeping				
Bookkeeping I	11	751	885	873
Bookkeeping II	5	130	113	137
Recordkeeping	10	1,607	1,761	1,558
Distribution				
Salesmanship	7	81	260	88
Advertising & Display	6	115	136	164
Merchandising	6	122	340	199
Merchandise Information	5	79	322	266
Distributive Education I	1	61	-	-
General				
Business Information	9	329	267	230
Introduction to Business Skills	9	702	720	560
Cooperative Part-time-Work	4	41	100	41
Bank	10	143	123	133
Office	2	7	5	1
Business Laboratory	1	-	-	58
Job Conditioning	3	-	20	87
Total		10,582	11,844	11,171

Source: Office of the Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

It was not possible to get any figures on numbers of students enrolled in one or more business courses. Since many students enroll in more than one business course during a given year the total enrollments in business education in no way represent total number of students who are taking some business courses. It is very likely that the typical student taking any business course is taking two or three such courses.

Although the business education departments have a suggested curriculum, which was developed in 1954, it is not followed in a sufficient number of cases to be considered operational at this point. The suggested sequences of stenographic, bookkeeping, retailing, and clerical-typist seem not to be reflected in the enrollment pattern.

Curriculum in Vocational Schools. As would be expected, the vocational orientation of the programs in these schools is far more pronounced than it is in the senior high school. Students appear to follow a sequence to a greater extent than is the case in the high schools. The vocational courses in business are considered "shop" courses and emphasis is placed on the practical aspects of the skills and related knowledge. In general, the business curricula are:

Clerk-typist	--	basic training is in record keeping, filing, typewriting, business math
Secretarial	--	basic training in typewriting, stenography, secretarial practices
Office Machines	--	basic training in typewriting, adding and calculating machines, duplicating machines, and billing machines, primarily
Retailing	--	basic training in salesmanship, retailing, typewriting, bookkeeping

There seems to be no standard policy governing work-experience in relation to these curricula. In one vocational school, for example, there was no co-operative training program in the specialized medical secretarial program that is offered, while there is such a program in the retailing course. In many programs, only those students who are considered qualified are sent out for work in businesses; the others get an additional "shop" in school. The time spent in the business shops is from two to three periods per day. Courses such as Business English, Business Arithmetic, and Bookkeeping are not considered shop courses but are a part of the student's program of study.

The teachers in the vocational schools seemed concerned with developing marketable skills and providing job opportunities. Some reported that they attempted to find positions for students who were interested in working while attending school. The business teachers assist seniors in finding jobs. In one of the vocational schools, for example, the comment was made that the Job Opportunity Day sponsored by the Board of Trade was a waste of time since 90 percent of the students already had jobs at graduation time. The vocational schools administer civil service examinations in the school and encourage students to take them. Guidance functions are very much a phase of the classroom learning experience.

In all the vocational schools there are reimbursed programs in distributive education; in three of them, there are cooperative training programs in office occupations. The numbers of students in these programs were 66 and 113 respectively in 1965-66.

Curriculum in the Junior High Schools. The offerings at the junior high school level are severely limited. Table 14-6 contains enrollment data for a three year period.

Typewriting is the only offering in every school.

Table 14-6

Business Education Offerings in Junior High Schools
1963-64, 1964-65, and 1965-66

Course	Number of Schools (N=25)	1963-64	1964-65	1965-66
Typewriting	25	4,578	4,790	5,022
Personal Typewriting	6	542	620	136
General Business	24	3,252	2,989	3,357
Business Arithmetic	24	2,145	2,284	2,313
Fundamentals of Business	23	3,114	3,441	3,164
Typewriting I - 8th Grade Experiment	1	81	35	-
Consumer Business	1	-	-	15
Total		13,712	14,159	14,007

Source: Office of the Business Education Supervisor, District of Columbia Schools.

Approximately 19 percent of the students were taking typewriting. Of the 12 subject fields offered at the junior high school level, business education ranked eighth in 1965-66 in number of student enrollments; only industrial arts, home economics, modern languages and Latin having fewer student enrollments. Typewriting is considered a basic skill by some schools which offered the course to all students. In other instances, the junior high schools were considered the place for making an initial commitment to a program of studies so that students who were likely to be "terminal" at high school graduation were given courses in business. Some schools offered typewriting only; others had three or four other offerings. There appeared to be no explanation for the particular offerings in any one school.

The programs appeared to serve several purposes; they provide relatively simple-level courses for slower students; preliminary courses for students who express an interest in business as a field of study; some general business understanding and typewriting skill for students not likely to continue business courses at the high school level.

Students in Business Courses. At the senior high, most students in business programs tended to come from the General Track. In some instances, girls from Regular and Honors Tracks were taking typewriting and stenography. There are some special business

offerings for students in the Special Academic Curriculum. An analysis of students enrolled in 54 classes randomly selected from nine high schools showed a distribution as follows: Honors, 21 (1.5 percent); Regular, 170 (13 percent); General, 1,103 (84 percent) and Special Academic, 24 (1.5 percent).

While figures were not available as to the ability levels of the students in the business programs in the vocational schools, teachers judged the students to be equivalent to the General Track students in the senior high schools and a larger portion equivalent to the Special Academic students. This estimate was based on comparisons of standardized test scores of vocational and senior high students in business education courses.

If the total enrollments at the junior high school were assessed, the range of ability in the business programs was probably wider than in the other two types of schools primarily because of the efforts to give all students typewriting. Students taking the other business offerings tend to be in the lower half of the classes. Classes are arranged from high to low on the basis of ability.

The Teaching Staff. With the additions made to the business staffs the total business education teaching staff was 220 in early January of 1967. Of these, 108 were in senior high schools; 23, in vocational school day-time programs; and 89, in junior high schools.

In a random sample of 54 classes the class size ranged from a transcription class of 11 students to two business skills classes with 39 each. The average class size was slightly over 24. There were 25 classes with enrollments of 30 to 39.

An approximate teacher-student load was computed by dividing the total enrollments in business education by the numbers of teachers in each of the schools. The teacher load ranged from a low of 96 to a high of 203. (There was no opportunity to explore the reasons for these variations.) The average loads for a three year period, 1964-67, were 132,112 and 109. Thus there has been a slight decrease in the average teaching load over the three-year period.

In a random sample of 33 junior high school classes, the average enrollment was 33 with a range from 20 to 41. Most classes had enrollments in the thirties. The teacher loads ranged from 123 to 353. In the school where the load was 353, there was a single typewriting teacher. Students take typewriting a few times a week rather than on a daily basis.

The average loads for the junior high teachers for the three years 1964-67 were 164, 161 and 157 respectively.

Classroom Behavior. The general impression from relatively brief visits in a sample of the classrooms was that teachers were doing very little teaching: they were "keeping classes." Students were on their own, for the most part; reading the textbook, working at typewriters, filling in workbooks. While there certainly can be justification for independent work, particularly in some of the laboratory courses or shop courses where they did seem to have the types of materials to gain optimally from such self-instruction, both teachers and students (in the nonskill courses) were for the most part extremely passive in the classroom. While the foregoing expresses the general impression, a few teachers demonstrated superior teaching skill. Their classrooms were alive with students deeply involved with what was going on. However, the number of such teachers was far too limited to change the general impression.

There appeared to be a lack of teacher involvement in the direction of the department's work. Principals were responsible for schedules, sometimes making programs without consultation.

Teachers reflected attitudes all along the continuum of "appropriateness of courses for students taking them." Some felt that students were programmed for courses with no attention given to their interests or abilities. Shorthand teachers commonly commented on the numbers of students in beginning shorthand who did not have the basic skills required to profit from such a course. Some teachers of record keeping felt that the course was meeting the needs of the slower students while others felt that the students were not gaining much from the offering. Some teachers felt that the program had not been modified sufficiently to accommodate the changing nature of the student body. Others felt that too many students were dropping out of school. Seldom, however, did a teacher have a well-formulated suggestion to alleviate some of the inadequacies of the program in relation to students' needs.

Generally, teachers seemed pleased with the materials and equipment with which they had to work. Many were grateful for the supervisor's efforts in getting new equipment and in improving the maintenance of the equipment.

Department Chairmen. The general impression is that chairmen carry little, if any, real responsibilities. In some instances, the chairmen had no idea of the total range of course offerings in the department and what particular teachers were teaching. They seemed to make no decisions about a teacher's program, make no suggestions for curriculum change, and seemingly do not arrange for teachers' meetings. In a few instances, it appeared chairmen had established good working relations with their staffs and did provide some assistance to teachers, particularly those who sought help.

Guidance of Students. Since the business programs are considered vocational, chairmen and teachers should be interested in job opportunities and in providing the in-school experiences most appropriate for such opportunities. The picture is quite mixed: some departments appear to plan couses and sequences with such a goal in mind; in others, students seem to be taking courses because of some guidance counselor's decision. In some schools, teachers were found who had assumed some responsibilities for guidance and placement of students. In other schools, teachers merely commented on the lack of proper guidance and placement on the part of the counseling staff in the school.

The general attitude of the teachers in the vocational schools was markedly different from that in the senior high schools. The teachers were far more involved in student guidance and placement. The Civil Service Examinations are administered in these schools, as well as in some of the comprehensive schools, and students are kept informed of job opportunities in the District. It must be pointed out, however, that the dropout rate in these schools is high. Teachers seemed concerned that the student be properly placed. Students who were unsuccessful in one program were encouraged to go into another one.

Of the graduating class of 1965, 927 (69 percent) of the 1,345 who reported they were employed were in office and sales occupations. No data were available to indicate how many of those in office and sales had had such training in the secondary schools. Vocational school teachers observed that all their seniors had jobs before the school year ended. Many in the comprehensive schools also noted that students who stayed to graduate and developed good skills were able to get jobs. However, it is necessary to remember that approximately as many students do not remain in the schools until graduation as do complete the twelfth grade.

Equipment and Materials of Instruction. In the last three years, new standards have been approved by the Board of Education for typewriting, office practice, school, bank, and office machines laboratories. New standards for shorthand transcription and bookkeeping classes include such teaching aids as the overhead projector and dictation equipment. Equipment has been upgraded with the funds available through the Vocational Education Act, from Impact Aid, and from Vocational Rehabilitation, as well as from internal savings and budget appropriations. There are still deficiencies in some schools and in some instances the replacement schedule does not seem to operate according to the policy.

Materials for instruction appear to be near the minimal level in most schools. There were few evidences of supplementary books, periodicals, and other materials that might enrich instruction for students. Schools provide basic books; students must pay for workbooks and other expendable materials.

In the vocational high schools, there seemed to be more equipment than in the senior high schools. Laboratories seem somewhat better organized and the equipment seems more appropriate to the vocational goals of the student.

Student Extra-Class Activities. Two national student organizations have chapters in Washington high schools. Future Business Leaders of America, under the auspices of the National Business Education Association, has chapters in eight high schools; Distributive Education clubs of America has chapters in six high schools. Both organizations are interested in building leadership interests in the fields of business and distribution.

Special Programs. Some experimental programs have been introduced with the aid of federal funds. In one high school, for example, there is a business laboratory for slow learners, financed and maintained by the Vocational Rehabilitation Department. Four high schools have Job Conditioning Classes with a total enrollment of approximately 150. Priority is given to seniors in economic need. One teacher in each school has been given considerable freedom in determining what the students need in order to become "marketable." A class is scheduled before the normal opening of the school day. The teacher serves as a counselor and placement officer, using part of the afternoon to find jobs and supervise students on the job.

In Spingarn High School there is a School to Aid Youth (STAY) program that provided for dropouts, classes meeting from 3:45 p.m. until 9:45 p.m. This program has its own staff and provides a full program in business education. Several schools have Vocational Office Training programs that allow students who have passed the Civil Service examination to work 20 hours per week and earn 1-1/2 Carnegie units.

In each instance, these special programs respond to some of the deep-seated problems that youth in Washington possess. The programs need to operate for longer periods of time before an assessment of their effectiveness is feasible.

The Central Supervisory Office. The small supervisory staff works with a faculty of approximately 220 persons, over half of whom do not meet the minimum certification qualifications. They see their task in relation to teachers as primarily on an advisory one. They make observations in classrooms but the follow-up responsibility seems unclear. They also know the subtle but effective ways in which Negro youngsters suffer discrimination in the market place. At the same time, they are aware of the job needs of Washington businesses and the Federal Government.

The staff is responsible for inservice training for business teachers. This office is also responsible for constructing and administering the tests for school clerks. It

sponsors short-term adult education classes in the fields of management and distribution, including a series of management training courses in cooperation with the United States Small Business Administration and the Small Business Development Center. The Washington Real Estate Brokers Association also cooperates with the Distributive Adult Education Program in planning real estate training careers.

The Employing Community's View of the Business Programs. The schools would not get a high score if business and Government personnel officials were marking their report cards. While the number of employers interviewed was limited, the same answer was secured time after time: students from the local high schools are poorly prepared for work. It is possible that this general assessment is somewhat influenced by experiences with students who had dropped out of school before they completed a vocational program. Yet, the indictment is supported by comments such as the following:

> One out of four passes the typewriting examination which requires a speed of forty words a minute. We find many who say that they have had two years of typewriting in high school who do not know the touch system.
>
> We have dropped our typewriting requirement to 30 words a minute because we cannot get workers with higher skills.
>
> We seldom have a graduate who will take our stenography test.
>
> Many high school graduates fail the simplest tests in reading comprehension and arithmetic. They don't have the basic skills of reading and computing.
>
> Students haven't been taught that attendance is important and that they must assume responsibility in jobs.

The employers reflected the critical shortages of all types of workers that they face and their continued need for people of better quality than those that they are able to hire. Government personnel officers seemed to feel that private businesses were getting the "cream of the crop" while the private firms' personnel officials stated that they were able to attract only those "who were not wanted by the Government."

Over and over again the employers cited weaknesses that were far more basic than the so-called business skills. They felt that youngsters lacked facility with the English language, especially spoken English. Department stores were extremely sensitive on this point. Others noted that their arithmetic placement tests required approximately a fifth or sixth grade level of basic computation skills, yet many candidates (often as many of 80 percent) were unable to pass these examinations.

The description of the high school graduate seeking a position is disappointing. He appears with long-term deficiencies in basic learning tools, in basic attitudes toward work, and with somewhat meaningless business skills since they were developed on what appears to be a totally unsatisfactory base of general skills. While the general picture is bleak, employers did identify teachers whose students measured up to the demands of their jobs. They also cited instances of competent students.

The Overriding Impression. The task force came away with a general impression that there is little vitality to the business program. Students are taking courses seemingly at random; teachers are following through with little enthusiasm, little teaching, little encouragement; job placement is at best a half-hearted activity.

Personnel officials in government and business cite the unrelenting demands for qualified employees of the order that a good high school could provide. One finds them setting up training programs to give new employees minimal instruction for jobs. Many positions in Government as well as in private industry could be filled with high school graduates who had achieved basic competency in English and arithmetic and speech and had some basic business skills.

Recommendations for Business Education Programs. The recommendations that follow are considered for the short-run needs of the District. Their validity for the long run is unpredictable, for if the programs can be markedly improved in the next five years, the need for many of these suggestions will end. These recommendations have been influenced by the low educational achievement of many youth in the school system, by the low economic status of many families, particularly in the center of the District, and by the high percentage of students who fail to find sufficient relevance in the schools to stay to graduate.

The entire business education staff, both supervisory and instructional, must have a massive renovation of their own thinking about the field, the students, their potential, and the nature of the business world into which their students go. Supervisors and teachers need more than inspirational oratory or pleasant public relations activities with business officials, Governmental agents, and general administrative officials.

It is recommended that in-service programs be planned which stress the significance of vocational programs; the demands for preparing students effectively and realistically; the need to diagnose student potential; and the need to understand how deficiencies can be remedied.

Supervisors and teachers should see first-hand the kinds of opportunities available for high school graduates and assimilate the meaning of new attitudes toward employing young Negroes.

A series of small group meetings of business teachers and supervisors of high school graduates in business and Government might be organized to examine program needs. There are teachers who have had no experience in stores managed by white personnel that have little comprehension of what the expectations of the store manager are. A group meeting of salesmanship teachers might clarify job expectations.

The level of instruction in the classrooms is far from adequate. Teachers need to be taught what to teach and how to teach. They undoubtedly possess considerable untapped talent. The in-service education cannot be discontinuous and fragmented. Teachers need opportunities for experimentation for themselves, for involvement. For example, instead of merely seeing what an expert teacher does when he attempts to teach typewriting, the in-service experience should provide the teacher with a chance to try the new techniques to which he has been introduced.

One possibility is to plan all the business education offerings for the summer session for one or two schools. Master teachers would be assigned to teach the whole range of courses offered. Local teachers would serve as observers and assistants to the visiting teachers. During the afternoon, all the teachers and teacher-observers would have sessions that dealt with teaching methodology, evaluation, and similar topics that would be relevant to the improvement of instruction. Before the summer session ended the local teachers would be teaching the classes using the new methodologies.

It is recommended that a total curriculum redesign be undertaken. The curriculum guide written in 1954 is still officially followed. There have been modifications,

many made on an ad hoc basis. Consequently, the programs in a particular school may be totally inadequate for the particular student population.

A curriculum review should result in: (1) a series of specified occupational clusters for which preparation is provided in a meaningful, logical sequence of courses; (2) a variety of programs that reflect students' ability levels and students' vocational interests, and (3) a well-integrated combination of general, basic skills and knowledges and the vocational preparation.

It is recommended that a program be developed, beginning in the junior high school, that combines work and study in a pattern that captures the interest of the reluctant youngster and sustains that interest until he completes high school. For some youngsters, study must be built around work. The pressure to earn money is intense. In one school, there were four times as many students seeking part-time positions in the office of a newly appointed counselor than there were positions to be filled. Students might study all year long with their courses scheduled two at a time. They might not complete high school until they are 20. This program might be particularly valuable for students who have not achieved to the minimal levels.

It is recommended that all part-time work programs in the areas of business and distribution be coordinated. In some instances the schools are eagerly seeking positions for students while, at the same time, employers are seeking workers without success. A Central Office should be established through which all prospective employers can channel their needs. If employers have somewhat specified skills for these workers, it might be feasible to provide short-term training. Prior to the beginning of the summer vacation, the Central Office might process hundreds of youngsters for positions in businesses that can use their recently developed (and developing) skills.

It is recommended that a more effective system be designed for selecting equipment and materials for the schools. With many changes taking place in the business office, new equipment should be of a totally different character from old equipment. The plan of exchanging an old machine for a newer model of the same type of machine perpetuates yesterday's skills which may not be very useful for youngsters in school today. Other aspects of equipment selection require attention: for example, coordinating new purchases with the building renovations they entail.

The schools should provide materials that are necessary for the laboratory courses. Students should not be expected to buy workbooks, supplementary materials, and laboratory supplies for instruction. Because of the low economic level of many youngsters in the vocational programs, much instruction proceeds with less than all the supplies that would be considered desirable. The equipment and materials that would make independent study and practice effective must be provided. The disadvantaged youngster is often one who has no place to study at home and few materials with which to work. At the present time, the facilities provided are primarily for the student who is most likely to be able to provide them for himself. There should be study laboratories where students can take dictation for their stenography classes, review an arithmetic lesson on a programmed device, or practice typewriting.

It is recommended that appropriate standards for courses be developed. A set of standards centrally developed and imposed will in all likelihood not be effective. Teachers must be involved in determining what appropriate standards are. They need to participate in answering the questions: What can these students be expected to achieve at the end of a semester? What is a fully realistic level for earning credit in this course? How should we determine achievement in each of the areas for which marketable skills are developed? Standards should be considered dynamic measurements and be developed with increasingly higher levels for succeeding periods of time.

For the long-run, there needs to be developed a far broader interpretation of business education. There was no feeling in any of the schools that there is any value to business education other than as a vocational program. Except for a feeling that "everyone can use typewriting," the program is viewed as preparing people for work. Possibly, in the short run this is the only feasible attitude for what needs to be done to bring the vocational program up to an adequate level will take far more resources than presently allocated to the program. However, ultimately attention should be given to the business offerings that might be provided as electives for students in all programs. It is somewhat shortsighted in today's world to fail to see the value of offerings in business and economic understandings for many, if not all, high school students. The business department should work cooperatively with the social studies department in planning courses that aim to develop economic-business understandings.

Adult and Continuing Education [1/]

The scope of the District's adult education program can be seen in Table 14-7. Classes ranging from Americanization to basic education are held in a number of schools and miscellaneous locations.

The hub of the adult program is the Armstrong Adult Education Center which combines three types of programs: vocational training, academic and manpower development. Vocational training is offered in the following areas: Automobile Mechanics, Automobile Body Building, Brick Masonry, Barber Science, Data Processing, Dental Assistants, Architectural and Mechanical Drafting, Dressmaking, Electrical Wiring, Offset Lithography, Printing, Radio-Television, Tailoring, Typewriter Repair, Washing Machine Repair and Upholstering.

Armstrong provides academic courses leading to a high school diploma and training in business or commercial fields. Opportunities are offered to high school graduates who wish to qualify for college or for promotion to undertake certain courses which they may have missed.

Finally, the District's Manpower Development Training Program is implemented through the Center in cooperation with the U. S. Employment Service. The MDTA Act provides training for both unemployed and under-employed persons in those occupations where there is a reasonable expectation of employment. Classes under this program include: Clerk-Typist, Practical Nursing, Automobile Mechanics, Dental Assistants, Basic Electricity, Brick Masonry, Hotel and Restaurant Cooks, Service Maintenance, Basic Education, Food Service Training, IBM Data Processing, Programming and Key Punching and Medical Assistants.

There is consensus that raising the knowledge and competence of the District's adults would help to solve some community problems and achieve community goals. But disagreement clouds the nature and direction of the role of the public schools adult education division. To end this dilemma, educational leaders and the District citizenry should discuss and clarify the role of adult education.

One measure of the community's need for adult education is the well documented record on illiteracy, unemployment and problems of health, family life and community life. Better education could contribute to partial resolution or alleviation of these

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1/ Dr. Alan B. Knox prepared a report on Adult Education which served as the basis for this section.

Table 14-7

Enrollments in Adult Education Schools and Programs, March 1967.

Schools and Programs	Male	Female	Total
Regular Adult Education			
Americanization	208	329	537
Anacostia	123	459	582
Bell	325	-	325
Cardozo	179	377	556
Chamberlain	159	59	218
Garnet-Patterson	79	165	244
Phelps-Armstrong	290	99	389
Roosevelt	189	766	955
Washington	24	502	526
Western	-	303	303
Woodson	171	534	705
Distributive Occupations	215	125	340
Total	1,962	3,718	5,680
Miscellaneous locations:			
Community Classes (Home Ec.)	-	207	207
Residential Training Center	-	39	39
Total	-	246	246
Civil Defense Adult Educ. Prog.	210	273	483
Adult Basic Education	429	477	906
Total, Regular Adult Education	2,601	4,714	7.315
Special Adult Education			
Trade and Industrial Educ.	37	12	49
Armstrong Adult Educ. Center			
Day	50	97	147
Evening	385	603	988
Total, Armstrong Adult Educ. Center	435	700	1,135
Manpower Development and Training Program:			
Armstrong (day)	98	104	202
Armstrong (evening)	-	-	-
Burdick (day)	8	39	47
Washington (day)	-	-	-
Washington (evening)	2	9	11
Roosevelt (day)	-	17	17
Total, Manpower Development and Training Program	108	169	277
Total, Special Adult Education	580	881	1,461
Grand total, Regular and Special Adult Education	3,181	5,595	8,776

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

problems. There are hundreds of institutions and organizations that sponsor programs of adult and continuing education attracting residents of the Washington metropolitan area. Although exact figures on enrollments in adult education are not available, projections from national averages would indicate a total of about 70,000 District adults during the past year. Sponsors included schools, colleges, libraries, employers, churches, unions and community agencies, such as the YWCA. The crucial question is: what should be the extent and type of services and programs developed by the public school sector of adult education?

One of the unique characteristics of the present system is that, aside from being part of one of the largest educational institutions in the community, adult programs are tax supported and free. In seeking to maximize its community impact and to appeal to its target population, the division should emphasize programs for which no fees are charged. These include courses for adults in very low income families, those for teachers in other adult education programs and those for all citizens and family members.

The current investment in public school adult education is clearly inadequate. It is difficult to ascertain how inadequate because of the lack of recognized standards of comparison and because experts and the public differ on the appropriate quality of life or residence in the nation's capitol. The Havighurst Study of the Chicago Public Schools concluded that fewer than three percent of the adults were being reached, compared with other major cities, ranging from 4 percent in New York City to 12 percent in Los Angeles. The schools in the District are probably reaching about three percent of the adults.

The overwhelming remedial emphasis in the District on providing elementary and high school courses for adults who missed them earlier dominates the District adult education program. About two-thirds of the District program currently is in some phase of remediation, compared with about 10 percent for the public school adult programs nationally. At the national level, about 40 percent of the programs are vocational, compared with about 20 percent of the District; and about 20 percent center on home and family life, compared with less than 5 percent in the District. Almost all of the courses that are directly related to citizen roles in the District are part of the Americanization Program. Financial support by the school system of adult education is low compared with other large cities. In the District, it is less than one percent which compared with Chicago and New York City but falls below the two percent plus for Los Angeles.

District adult education merits primary attention to fundamental but prosaic factors, such as resources and priorities. Given the correlation between efforts to improve the quality of life in the District of Columbia and a strengthened public school adult education program, there are two major resources that must be increased if this expansion is to have desired results: one is money and the other is an enlarged staff of full-time, resourceful, competent adult education administrators.

Implementation could be phased over three to six years. During phase one, the focus would be on upping the budget for adult education to create venture capital for two projects: one, initiation of long-term in-service training for adult staff development, oriented towards adaptation and change; two, the establishment of a research and planning unit associated with the division. Both of these projects will move quickly if pending plans materialize for a multi-agency Center for Adult Basic Education. The research and planning unit should concentrate on clientele, analysis and agency assessment, with special emphasis on program evaluation. The key to all this should be a review of agency goals and the building of relationships with the adult educators associated with other agencies, community leaders and the adult education staff.

In the second phase a separate adult education division would be activated with two major advisory committees, one based on the school and the other on the community. The third and final phase would focus on consolidation and on long-term development, supported by a major investment for program development, supervision and teacher training. The adult education division would then be prepared to extend its programming beyond the current audience (temporary group and organizations) to reach the community at the local neighborhood level and the individual in his role as self-directed learner. Increasing the adult counselling staff during the first two phases would define the nucleus for an adult counselling center to service all aspects of the division.

In the past the division has co-sponsored adult education programs with other organizations in sporadic fashion. There has been no organized effort to assure relatively comprehensive direct contacts with major segments of the community. The division does have a moderate degree of visibility; it receives program requests which it attempts to honor.

Although the division does little about training the teachers for other organizations, developing materials and procedures or scheduling consultations; the co-sponsorship of adult education programs carries a high priority. Examples of such programs include providing: (1) teachers of adult basic education for the reformatory training program; (2) instructors for trained unemployed heads of households with the welfare department reimbursing the division for instructional costs through the Economic Opportunity Act; (3) basic skills training as part of the pre-discharge rehabilitation programs at the halfway houses operated by Glendale and St. Elizabeth hospitals; and (4) teachers for a program co-sponsored with the welfare department on child care, home management and employment skills, along with an academic refresher course, for mothers without husbands. The gaps in the fabric of comprehensive direct contact between the division and all segments of the community are caused by the paucity of educators in community organization staffs.

The Adult Education Center scarcely relates the elementary and secondary school program. Some of its staff consists of elementary and secondary school teachers but they have produced few, if any, programs for parents of school children designed to reinforce educational objectives. The possibilities of programs which would link the elementary and secondary branches with the continuing education divisions, to their mutual benefit, are worth exploring.

The Adult Education Division has maintained limited contact with other agencies through the Adult Education Association of Greater Washington. Directors of other agencies seem only dimly aware of what the division is doing; this was apparent when the local AEA unit declined an invitation to support Operation Alphabet Project. The division has referred inquiring adults to appropriate service agencies and has co-sponsored conferences for teachers with the National Association for Public School Adult Education (NAPSAE). In general, the District has engaged in almost no co-sponsored programs of adult education. The division strongly supports a current move towards an experimental Center for Adult Basic Education that would draw together many relevant agencies. Possibly because of its small staff, however, the division has exercised little leadership in attempting to achieve its objectives with and through other adult education agencies.

The division faces these blocks to a sound continuing education program: no funds for more full-time programs and administrators, counsellors or for expanded instructional resources; insufficient day-time facilities; and too few participants, especially low-income adults from the community and its decision-making segment.

The Adult Education Division has no statement of its long-term goals, although certain of its informal understandings emphasize the maintenance of stability within desirable programs and practices. However, its limited resources, little emphasis has been placed on stimulating change. The inadequate clarity and visibility of the goals of the division have held back expansion efforts and resulted in "more of the same." The small amount of administrative experience in adult education has inhibited leadership. The clearest goals emerge from federal grant programs. The division should undertake an internal study of its goals and policies with the assistance of outside consultants from the field of adult education. The advisory team must include people from adult groups not presently being served -- particularly the low-income and decision-makers from all socio-economic levels.

Aside from federal grant programs, the impetus for most new programs has come from community groups to the Superintendent of Schools, who refers requests to the division. The citizen group then familiarizes itself with the present program and the division obtains specifics on the needs and numbers to be served. After studying the requests and its budget the division forwards its recommendation to the Superintendent. Examples of recent requests included one from the NAACP for an academic refresher course for persons preparing to take civil service examinations and one from the D. C. Teachers College for a course for persons who had scored too low on the English and mathematics sections of the entrance exam. Each year the division receives about 500 requests for short-term programs, most of which are accommodated. Refusals are based on the small numbers to be served, the budget limitations, or lack of facilities during the day. These short-term programs are typically one or two sections a week for 6 to 20 weeks. Few requests for new courses come from individuals.

The division has few procedures for assessing program needs; it has no formal clientele analysis aside from informal efforts by individual teachers on a class-by-class basis. There is no research regarding non-participants, except for a report on illiteracy and adult basic education. There is no attempt to interpret the community needs through census data, staff contacts with community groups or broad-based advisory committees. Teachers have wide latitude in deciding upon course purposes, undeterred by the purposes of learners or administrators. The division places very little emphasis on program evaluations, planning and operation phases. With the exception of the federal grant programs, few new programs are developed each year; advisory committees are absent; programs oriented to the individual organizational and community desires are oriented to the individual organizational and community desires are honored in the breach by the short-handed staff of administrators. Adult education has moved along from year to year with little major innovation or experimentation.

It is recommended that pilot neighborhood programs be created aimed at adults with very low levels of literacy and vocational competence. The first step should be identifying the informal opinion leaders in the target population, in leadership training, developing a "vestibule" program (with and through the opinion leaders) as a way of reaching adults, recruiting adults for their entry-level learning and facilitating their transfer into literacy and vocational courses.

Recommendations of teachers of adult classes are transmitted through the principal of the school. The division has few formal procedures for involvement in program planning. The instructor generally plans regular courses; program administrators structure federal grant programs. In the co-sponsored programs, relevant community groups participate in course planning. Participant involvement in planning depends on the circumstances of each program but in most cases it tends to be slight and indirect.

The adult education division has assigned only moderate priority to teacher selection, judging from the brief time assigned to staff development. However, it has some-

how retained most of its more effective adult teachers. In testing teaching effectiveness, subject matter competence is certified by the Board of Examiners. In some fields, applied experience is an important qualification and some credit is given to demonstrated competence in some aspects of adult education. The turnover rate is accelerated by a policy that limits a day-school teacher to six consecutive years of teaching evening classes, after which he must withdraw from the evening program for one year. The current rate of pay is on an hourly basis. Teachers mostly learn to work effectively with adults through experience, supplemented by a two-hour in-service training session each year, plus valuable materials supplied by the NAPSAE. There is little administrative time for supervision and assistance.

The adult education division has a very modest personnel function. Teachers receive credentials from the Board of Examiners and receive one year appointments. Full-time staff with the school system earn the standard fringe benefits, others almost none. Personnel files are maintained in the division but little division-wide orientation is scheduled. The division has no other personnel functions. Consequently, the adult education programs place no visible demands on administrators and teachers for distinct orientation. To offset this, it is recommended that a handbook be prepared for increasing staff understanding of and commitment to the goals and procedures of the adult education division.

It is recommended that the recruitment, training and continuing education of adult educators be made part of the District's total staff development.

The division has relied primarily on a printed brochure, word-of-mouth referrals from participants and personal contact with directors of other agencies and groups. The recent association with the United Planning Organization could lead to more personalized contact through block leaders and neighborhood workers. The exact nature of the adult population being reached is hard to ascertain because of the lack of a clientele analysis. Enrollment has stabilized throughout the past 15 years: an average of about 7,500 different adults in a total of about 19,000 course enrollments. Divisional records do not allow a precise estimate of the number of different adults who are served by the division each year, but the figure is probably between 12,000 and 16,000. With the exception of the adult basic education program there has been no concerted effort to widen or extend the constituency. However, average membership increased by about 500 adults during 1966-67.

The adult basic education program has the only advisory committee. The present procedures for demonstrating the relevance of agency programs to potential participants are minimal. The co-sponsored programs contain a built-in channel to the sponsors' members but the regular class program relies heavily on word-of-mouth and limited mass media. The build-up of adult students -- compared with reports from other large cities -- should be a cause for concern.

Program development has skimmed over the educationally unready or the self-directed learner. There has been little attention to clear, realistic and related objectives; to teaching styles and selection and supervision of teachers; to the use of individual, or organizational or community settings for adult education. With the exception of the academic courses, there has been almost no evaluation of the courses. Daily life experience in the community provides the adult learner with an assessment of how much he has learned sometimes in the form of a job-related examination. Rates of attendance and dropout indicate response, but neither of these provides information for improvement. The problem is due partially to the fact that almost all of the teachers are part-timers, without much guidance and encouragement. It is recommended that the number of competent adult education supervisors be increased to work with teachers on a continuing program of evaluation.

The adult education division rarely counsels its clients except at the Armstrong Center and in the Adult Basic Education Program. Armstrong Center has two persons assigned to vocational counseling and some testing. Basic Education has two counselors also. Obviously, the adult counseling function is inadequate. Most adults get scanty help in discovering their educational needs, contacting relevant educational resources and planning an appropriate program of study. For most of the adult students, there are only minimal program information, no diagnostic testing, no clearing house for referral, no assistance regarding placement. This is primarily due to budgetary limitation and lack of a support staff. The task force recommends opening an adult counseling center for the entire adult education program at a central location like the Armstrong Center. In addition to the highly visible central counseling agency, the counselors should see people regularly each week in the program site locations and out in the various neighborhoods. The main location of the adult counseling center should be a "single door" to data and registration for all programs of the division. The center should also become the clearing house for directing people to adult education opportunities sponsored by other agencies. The adult division should initiate a program for working with neighborhood groups in store fronts, community centers, churches and other agencies to stimulate continuing education.

Program administrators suffer from lack of previous experience, from non-specific education, career orientation and competencies related to adult education. Several have taken graduate courses and one staff member teaches courses on the subject of adult education at the D. C. Teachers College. The division has formed dual appointments with vocational education or overload assignments, with most of the full-time assignments related to the federal grant programs. Policy has not encouraged administrators to pursue professional development; nor does it block out time for teacher supervision, with the exception of three persons associated with federal grant programs. The lack of institutionalization and scattering of adult education programs requires even firmer stability and leadership by the administrative staff. Unfortunately, for the reasons cited above, stability of program growth and leadership for increased effectiveness have been elusive. The intra-system linkages of dual appointments are important and should be preserved. However, new full-time administrative staff positions, especially for supervision and counseling, are recommended.

Change as a systematic and planned activity is not typical of the division. With the exception of the federal grant programs and a small shift towards more emphasis on earning a high school diploma, few major changes have marked the past few years. One exception has been recent efforts to establish a multi-agency center for adult basic education. The division has conducted no research. The absence of systematic attention to planned change initiated from within the division is a major gap. It is recommended that the administrative staff develop diagnoses of needed changes in divisional programs. Earmarking venture capital for these purposes will encourage innovation and experimentation.

Restrictive arrangements of facilities have hampered expansion of division activities such as day-time programs and neighborhood projects barred by capacity use of high schools. Although several additional schools were recently opened to adult education courses, many long-standing requests of this kind were denied and the number of schools in such use remained constant. The division depends primarily on facilities shared with other parts of the school system. The one exception is the Armstrong Center, the one independently equipped unit with the potential for acting as the hub of of many divisional functions, which gives adequate support for pilot projects and a counseling center. Thanks to federal grant programs, arrangements could be increased for use of non-school facilities belonging to co-sponsoring groups. There is no master calendar which would allow the division to make firm long-term plans. When additional

facilities are needed, the principals' requests are forwarded to the Superintendent through the office of the Assistant Superintendent for Vocational and Adult Education. Facilities are then made available to the division only after regular day elementary and secondary school needs have been met and then, only if the request does not cost too much. The division has not participated in the planning of new or renovated facilities. The task force recommends expansion of the adult education facilities as needed, using both Board of Education facilities and appropriate neighborhood sites. The Board could search for and lease adaptable space in non-school facilities near the potential clientele. Certainly, the adult education division ought to be involved in all decisions involving them.

Another weak spot in the division is the employment of instructional materials. Except for the Armstrong Center Library, open 14 hours a day, there are no evening hours for use of library facilities. Teachers obtain their own text materials and handle their own duplicated materials, with little clerical support. There is no procedure for assessing materials' effectiveness. It is recommended that the divisional budget should be increased to provide library resources and other instructional materials.

Almost every adult education agency, if it is to be successful on a long-term basis, needs to maintain two interrelated identities. One is as part of the total school system, sharing program, staff and facilities. The second is as part of the field of adult education, visible to system administrators, teachers and students, to community agencies and individual adults, as a unit dedicated to the continuing life-long education of the adult, part-time learner. At present there is little visibility and identity as a separate and important function of the school system.

It is recommended that the adult education division be given cohesive visibility, coordinating its activities with the vocational educational program, with the Federal City College and with Washington Technical Institute -- other arms of adult education. Creation of an adult education liaison committee should assemble professionals from all relevant segments of the school system to facilitate interrelationship among various units.

In an adult education program, supported primarily by fees from learners, interest and satisfaction often are expressed by payment. However, for poor and low-income segments who need adult basic education, job retraining or courses for completion of a high school diploma, no fees should be charged. It then becomes necessary to convince the budget makers through detailed and compelling information about program performance and requirements why higher budgets are justified. More systematic assessment practices are necessary to generate such data. These difficult aspects of adult education administration (assessment and rationale for funding) demand high levels of competence and experience. It is recommended that an interim plan for agency assessment be developed with the assistance of outside consultants and that the divisional budget permit such programming until such time as the central staff reorganization provides a research and development department which will undertake the assessment of adult education.

In conclusion, the vocational-technical, adult and continuing education programs represent critical sectors of the total programming of the District's schools. With approximately 40 percent of the secondary school youth not completing a high school program, with a large gap between employer needs and marketable skills, with a large section of the adult population undereducated and impoverished, the District schools must be concerned with planning more adequate programs at this end of the educational ladder as well as with the early childhood end. Expanded programs of higher education are essential and, hopefully, more and more youths will be helped to enter this educational stream, particularly those from disadvantaged neighborhoods which are presently

under-represented. Vocational-technical programs need not and should not be dead-end. Properly designed, such programs can open up options to youths which, combined with continuing education, can mean greater opportunities in the future.

Adult education planners now face the challenge of programming for a population which has rejected and been rejected by the schools in the past. These groups are not likely to make their needs known to school people nor request particular programs be provided. It is the school system which must go out to the neighborhoods to determine what kinds of programs -- basic literacy, consumer education, manpower development, skills upgrading, family planning, health and community organization, for instance -- will reach the various adult publics. The events of the past half-dozen years have delineated a new role for adult education, one that now includes all persons age 16 and over. Continuing education may be a more appropriate designation in this framework.

Chapter 15

Higher Education In The District[1/]

The District of Columbia has an impressive array of post-high school educational institutions. However, until November 1966 when Congress passed Public Law 89-791 creating a system of public higher education in the District, there were no general public institutions of higher education in Washington, D. C. The testimony and supporting documents at the hearings that preceded passage of P. L. 89-791 documented the District's need for public higher education to a degree which bars repetition in this report.

Howard University, with its independent board of trustees, is classified as both a nationally and privately controlled university. The only institution offering low-cost higher education to District Citizens was the District of Columbia Teachers College. All other colleges, universities and seminaries in the District are private and national in orientation. The existing institutions fail to answer the educational needs of the District, a conclusion well documented by many studies and reports -- the Strayer Report of 1948, the 1964 Report to the President by the President's Committee on Public Higher Education in the District of Columbia, and the March 1966 hearings before the Public Health, Education, Welfare and Safety Subcommittee of the Committee on the District of Columbia.[2/]

Higher Education Facilities In The District

The higher education facilities in the District consist of many private four-year and two-year colleges plus the municipally controlled District of Columbia Teachers College. (See Table 15-1.)

Despite this list, there are still too few college places to accommodate the District's eligible youth. The 1964 President's Committee noted that, while the District's facilities compared favorably in some respects with those of other major cities, the absence of general public low-tuition institutions seriously restricted opportunities.

In Fall 1965, the tuition charges at four of the five major institutions (American. Catholic, George Washington and Georgetown Universities) ranged from $1,325 to $1,550. Howard University, the fifth, had a $500 tuition charge. The only institution offering low-cost higher education to District citizens was the D. C. Teachers College, specializing in teacher training and offering a B. S. degree. Remaining institutions are small

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1/ Dr. Michael Brick prepared the report on which this chapter is based.

2/ George D. Strayer, Report of a Survey of the Public Schools of the District of Columbia, conducted under the auspices of the chairmen of the subcommittees of D.C. appropriations of the respective appropriations committees of the Senate and House of Representatives. Washington, D. C., Government Printing Office, 1949. "A Report to the President," June 1964, final report of the Committee on Public Higher Education in the District of Columbia. "Authorization of D. C. Public Liberal Arts and Junior Colleges," Hearings before the Public Health, Education, Welfare, and Safety Sub-committee of the Committee on the District of Columbia, United States Senate, 89th Congress, Second Session, on S. 293 and S. 1612, March 14, 15, and 24, 1966, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, 1966.

and include Roman Catholic seminaries and two-year institutions with restricted purposes. For valid reasons, not one of the five universities in the District addresses itself primarily to the local residents, nor is in a position to extend any tuition advantages. Each sees itself as having a national rather than a local mission.

Table 15-1

Higher Education Facilities In The District of Columbia

Institution	Nature of Control	Enrollment as of Fall, 1964
The American University	Private, 4 year	12,023
Benjamin Franklin University	Private, 4 year	1,215
Capitol Institute of Technology	Private, 2 year	615
Catholic University of America	Private, 4 year	6,013
District of Columbia Teachers College	Public, 4 year	1,275
Dunbarton College of Holy Cross	Private, 4 year	572
Gallaudet College	Private, 4 year	535
George Washington University	Private, 4 year	15,717
Georgetown University	Private, 4 year	7,461
Holy Cross College	Private, 4 year	73
Howard University	Private, 4 year (also controlled by National or Federal Government)	7,555
Immaculata College of Washington	Private, 2 year	269
Marjorie Webster Junior College	Private, 2 year	440
Mount Vernon Junior College	Private, 2 year	216
Oblate College	Private, 4 year	92
St. Joseph's Seminary of Wash., D. C.	Private, 4 year	45
St. Paul's College	Private, 4 year	70
Southeastern University	Private, 4 year	1,094
Strayer Junior College	Private, 2 year	1,208
Trinity College	Private, 4 year	878
Washington Bible College	Private, 4 year	489
Wesley Theological Seminary	Private, 4 year	221

Source: U. S. Office of Education. Education Directory, 1965-1966, Part 3, Higher Education. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966.

While it accepts a larger number and a higher proportion of Washington residents than any of the other four District universities, Howard University (like its sister institutions) continues to feel its basic mission is national, and more recently, international, as it works with underdeveloped nations. Howard has never followed a policy of racial discrimination, but its prime responsibility has been to assure exceptional educational opportunities to its predominant Negro student body.

The District of Columbia Teachers College, governed by the Board of Education through one of its standing committees, has, over the years, suffered all of the privations of other District schools. Consequently, its response to the general higher

education demands of Washington has been minimal. The President's Committee on Public Higher Education (the "Chase Committee") doubted that D. C. Teachers College could supply the District's needs for effective teachers. The committee based its conclusion on a number of counts: "the restricted outlook, scope and resources of the institution; the gross inadequacy of its facilities; and its demonstrated inability to command the support by which it might have remedied its cumulative weaknesses."

In 1962, the D. C. Teachers College lost its accreditation from the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education because "the prospects of improving the facilities, maintaining a competent faculty and attracting an able student body were not good enough to justify (its continuation)." NCATE was particularly critical of the college's lack of independence and its exceedingly poor physical plant. The buildings have been dilapidated for years; in fact, the third floors of both buildings have been condemned as unusable. Although the Board of Education capital expenditure budgets for 1964, 1966 and 1967 itemized plans for a new teachers college, all of these were deleted by the District Commissioner. U. S. Associate Commissioner of Education Peter Muirhead, testifying before Congress in March 1966, concluded that these and other conditions ensured the college's decline in faculty, student body and education quality.

Thus, a new approach to public higher education was mandated for substantial reasons: the narrow purposes and programs of private, high-tuition institutions; their selectivity in admissions; the inadequacies of the single, low-cost public institution, the D. C. Teachers College. Washington was not serving its young people's needs for higher education.

In his 1963 message transmitting the District of Columbia budget to Congress, President Kennedy stated his concern that "in the Nation's Capital general education beyond the secondary level is not available at a nominal cost, as it is in many major cities and in the States." The President named head of a committee Francis S. Chase, Dean of the Graduate School of Education, University of Chicago, to examine and report on a public higher education system for the District of Columbia. The committee reported to President Johnson in June 1964, and recommended the following:

1. The immediate creation of a comprehensive, two-year community college, publicly supported, that will offer all high school graduates opportunities for technical and vocational training, for general education leading to greater personal and civic effectiveness, and for prerequisite study to qualify graduates for a four-year college or university.

2. The simultaneous founding of a college of liberal arts and sciences, also publicly supported, authorized to confer both the baccalaureate and the master's degrees. Its special concern will be with teacher education (thus replacing the District of Columbia Teachers College), but it will also offer specialized courses of study as need and feasibility are proved.

3. The prompt establishment of a system of noncompetitive public scholarships for graduates of the two-year community college, to pursue special courses of study in any institution other than the proposed college of liberal arts and sciences.

4. The early development in the District of a center or centers for high-level graduate and post-graduate studies.

Senator Wayne Morse, following the Committee's recommendations, introduced S.293 on August 5, 1964 and, following inaction, he reintroduced S.293 on January 6, 1965. The bill authorized the establishment of a public college of arts and sciences and a

comprehensive community college in the District to be administered by a Board of Higher Education. On March 25, 1965, "by request of the administration," Senator Bible introduced S.1612 authorizing the establishment of a Board of Higher Education. Its responsibilities were "to plan, establish, organize and operate a public community college and a public college of arts and sciences in the District of Columbia, and for other purposes." The bill was combined with that of Senator Morse.

Hearings before the Public Health, Education, Welfare and Safety Subcommittee of the Committee on the District of Columbia on March 14, 15, and 24, 1966 led to overwhelming support of the comprehensive community college and a separate four-year public liberal arts and science college. Although the Senate passed a bill which included the recommendations of the Chase Committee, the House amended it substantially, as a result of the report of its consultant on technical education.

The Chase Committee, studying the higher education needs of the District, concluded, "The most urgent educational need in the District of Columbia is hope." Some of that hope came with the passage of Public Law 89-791, creating a system of public higher education in the District of Columbia.

There is no doubt that if Congress authorizes the annual funding, if the new Boards establish creative policies and if the newly appointed presidents of the Federal City College and the Washington Technical Institute exercise leadership and vision, the District will have public higher education opportunities never before available to its residents. While P. L. 89-791 is concerned with post-secondary education, its development and implementation will create educational opportunities with ramifications at all levels for the District. When it was passed, President Lyndon B. Johnson commented:

> At last, public higher education is coming to the Nation's Capital.
>
> The District of Columbia Higher Education Act, which I have signed today, is a landmark. No longer will District children be denied the opportunity, available to high school graduates in every state, to continue their education after high school in a publicly-supported institution.
>
> When the Federal City College and the Washington Technical Institute open their doors, a long-standing educational inequity will be eliminated.
>
> I pledge the full support of the Federal Government in making these institutions not only a success, but a model for the nation.1/

Public Law 89-791: The D. C. Higher Education Act

The Eighty-ninth Congress created two institutions with the enactment of P.L. 89-791 -- the Federal City College and the Washington Technical Institute. The act was a mutually agreeable, if not educationally ideal, compromise. The College is to develop both four-year and two-year programs; the Institute, vocational and technical programs. The Act authorizes a sum, not to exceed $50 million, be appropriated from District revenues to create the two institutions.

Federal City College will provide a four-year program in the liberal arts, sciences, and teacher education, leading towards a baccalaureate degree. It will absorb D. C.

1/ Statement by the President on District of Columbia Public Education Act (H.R.16958), Office of the White House Press Secretary, San Antonio, Texas, November 7, 1966.

Teachers College when it becomes operational. It will also offer two-year programs which will be acceptable for full credit toward a bachelor's degree or for a degree of associate in arts. These programs may include courses in business education, secretarial training, and business administration. The two-year program may also include courses in engineering, mathematics, and the physical and biological sciences designed to prepare a student for work as a technician or as a semiprofessional in engineering, sciences and other technical fields. The college is also chartered to offer educational programs leading either to a master's degree or to no degree at all, for those desiring only to further their education.

The college will be controlled by a nine-man Board of Higher Education, of whom not less than five shall have lived in the District for at least three years immediately prior to their appointments. The members of the Board are appointed by the District Commissioners, who named the first Board early in 1967.

Washington Technical Institute will provide two-year programs of "vocational and technical education designed to fit individuals for useful employment in recognized occupations; and vocational and technical courses on an individual, non-credit basis." The Washington Technical Institute will be controlled by a Board of Vocational Education consisting of nine members appointed by the President of the United States. Of the nine members, at least six must be from industry. This board was also appointed early in 1967.

Thus, there are now three boards in the District, two of which deal with post-secondary education. All programs will compete for funding from the same District of Columbia budget.

The Federal City College

The appointment of a Board of Higher Education and the selection of its first president puts the District into a position to develop a fresh institution, boldly planned and free of tradition and rigid practices. Here is the opportunity to manifest creative leadership in the field of higher education by designing a program for the needs of the District's population and integrated with its cultural, governmental and scientific resources. It must reach those youth who otherwise would be deprived of higher education, not only those who would find their way to colleges and universities on their own.

Few terms have become a shibboleth more quickly than the word "excellence" as applied to higher education. As former U. S. Commissioner of Education Earl J. McGrath has observed:

> Excellence is now the sanctified phrase in every liturgy of higher education. Yet as the word is intoned in the temples of learning little actual educational change occurs. The curriculum remains substantially the same, the accustomed composition of the faculty persists, the libraries and the laboratories serve their traditional functions, and conventional teaching procedures go unexamined.1/

The change which has commonly resulted from the preoccupation with excellence is of doubtful educational or social worth. Many colleges have been steadily raising admis-

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1/ Earl J. McGrath, Eisenhower College, Committee for the Promotion of a New Liberal Arts College, Inc., Seneca Falls, New York, 1963, pp. 5-6.

sion standards and intensifying their competitive efforts to lure the exceptionally able student. What the District needs is an "open door" college for large number of able youth who might be barred elsewhere.

The College should dedicate itself to the best possible education it can provide in terms of its own values -- values always consistent with those of the larger society. It should strive ceaselessly for excellence measures in terms of the intellectual, social, moral, and spiritual growth of the students it admits. The College must aim at attracting high school graduates of competence, promise, and seriousness of purpose; yet it must not limit its admissions only to the upper ten percent. Its admissions staff should be sensitive to two factors: current inadequacies in many secondary schools; and the persisting potential within graduates of such high schools, who deserve one more academic chance. In certain cases it should admit others whose special abilities, strong motivation, records and recommendations indicate that -- with inspiring teaching -- they may achieve satisfactory or even distinguished records.

For this type of student body, the College must make every effort to create the kind of teaching staff, the facilities, and the generally stimulating atmosphere which will guarantee maximum growth in the traits of mind and character associated with the proper goals of a liberal education. The absorption of the District of Columbia Teachers College by the newly-created Federal City College is a positive move in the direction of good education for the District. Nationally, teachers colleges are fast disappearing and becoming multi-purpose institutions. The whole press for teacher preparation is towards combining professional training and solid grounding in a discipline. But the Federal City College must beware of merely tacking on to the present D. C. Teachers College. A new, innovative college is wanted and, in experimenting with new ways of preparing teachers, it could provide national leadership.

The Federal City College should attempt to capture the educational potential of small colleges without yielding the undoubted virtue of large size. Together with its quest for integrity through size should be a search for equal integrity through curriculum. The program must guard against undue specialization or fragmentation of educational experience. All students, regardless of ultimate vocation, should be faced with the broad outlines of human meaning and knowledge.

The planning should consider the use of automated instruction, tapes and other new media to furnish favorable conditions for learning. When properly developed and used, these media provide a means for the extending instructional impact. The College should explore possible use of the following: televised instruction, programmed learning, instructional films, language laboratories, learning resource centers, and other new media.

The Federal City College should test many variants of instruction, ranging from independent study to large group team teaching. Independent study should be an option not only for "honors" students but for all students.

Let the College be at the cutting edge in initiating programs for the disadvantaged. It can now synthesize experiences gained from such programs as Upward Bound, A Better Chance, Dillard Pre-Freshman, etc. in channeling disadvantaged youth into the mainstream of higher education. If the "open door" admission standards are applied, there will need to be compensatory programs at the college level -- individual and small group tutoring, self-instructional programmed materials, remedial assistance and even counseling and therapy. Underachieving gifted students seem to have profited from experimental programs in a residential setting: counseling, instruction, recreation and tutoring. There may be leads here for reaching low-income youth with latent talent.

Two-and Four-Year Programs. P. L. 89-791 places responsibility for two-year programs with the College. The task force recommends that serious efforts be made to remove the two-year program from the Federal City College and combine it with the Washington Technical Institute to form a separate Washington Community College, as proposed by the Chase Committee.

Two- and four-year colleges differ in many ways: purposes, admissions, faculty, instructional needs, and institutional personalities. Sharper objectives, stronger programs and a minimizing of admission problems will result from separating the two programs.

Federal City College is oriented towards strong baccalaureate and master programs. Policies to implement these purposes could conflict with the distinctive purposes of a two-year college. Judging from experience, two-year programs have usually suffered in attempts to link them with four-year and graduate programs. Faculty and staff, striving for scholastic excellence, have little patience with students with latent academic ability whose motivations must be raised. Less demanding criteria in curriculum development create a divisive stigma which tends to weaken the two-year programs. Attitudes of superiority and inferiority towards students and educational programs are predictable and inimical to the institution's success.

By spirit and organization, the four-year college is likely to be dominated by the liberal arts tradition, a tradition which could well subvert the objectives of a two-year community college. Faculty appointments and evaluations are made on different criteria. The two-year college accepts students of capacity, interest, scholastic attainment and educational goals quite different from those of the four-year students. Faculties have been more concerned with remedial and compensatory programs as required and have developed more community-based activities.

The task force sees considerable merit in a single community college uniting the functions now assigned to the Technical Institute and the two-year programs of the Federal City College. If this is out -- given the present legislative mandate and a sensitivity to the particular needs of Washington youth to be served by the College -- the Board of Higher Education should direct its administrators and faculty to build an institution which avoids the usual schisms of two- and four-year programs. Federal City College could then set the pattern for city-based institutions, serving a population which is largely low-income and academically marginal. In short, the District now has an opportunity to engineer a new type of college for a student body which has been absent from the higher education campus.

Teacher Education. The absorption of the District Teachers College into the Federal City College can revitalize the teacher education program. It can stimulate new ways of recruiting and training teachers. Earlier chapters have included recommendations for partnerships between the District schools and institutions of higher education, under which the potential teacher would work into the schools and the community from the beginning of his preservice preparation and professional staff would enjoy continuing education courses. As the College pioneers in educational programs for the urban student, it should plan and test ways of improving preparation of teachers, of paraprofessionals and other educational personnel. The present administration and staff of D. C. Teachers College have already made starts in this direction, and further planning should benefit from the more comprehensive resources of the Federal City College.

Washington Technical Institute

The issue of specialized versus comprehensive educational institutions has been kindled anew as a result of recent federal and state legislations funding major programs in vocational and technical education. The task force concurred with views expressed during the hearings on P. L. 89-791: "We must pay more attention to our vocational and technical schools"; "Vocational training has been woefully neglected and we should see that such training and the facilities for such training receive the highest priority"; and "There is a great need for technical and semi-professional education." However, the task force did not agree that a specialized technical institute was necessarily the best place to house such education. As indicated earlier, the team prefers and recommends that the District move toward developing a comprehensive two-year institution to be called the Washington Community College. Meanwhile what principles should guide the newborn Technical Institute?

The community college movement itself has many varied manifestations. It is sometimes another name for the junior college, with an emphasis on making transfer programs available locally. It may mean a technical institute, providing technical and semi-professional programs. Some community colleges offer only academic programs parallel to the first two years of the university and some attract largely adults. The interpretation which has the most common meaning describes an umbrella establishment dedicated to the manifold needs of the people of its geographic community.

Seven purposes or functions have become associated with community colleges:

1. Collegiate technical or semi-professional programs. Pre-employment preparation for persons going into an occupation; courses designed for retraining or upgrading employees. Technicians seem to fit somewhere between the professions and the crafts. Community college technical programs should include general education.

2. Transfer education. The first two years of college instruction for students planning to transfer to four-year collegiate institutions.

3. Preparatory and developmental programs. For each graduate of an approved high school, or equivalent, the opportunity to improve his educational background.

4. Higher education for adults. For the adults of the community, a variety of programs of higher education.

5. General education. Varied programs suitable for the diverse students in attendance. To provide experiences which will lead to the development of a broadly educated person, one who grasps the interrelationships of knowledge, who is able to think effectively, communicate, make relevant judgments, discriminate among values, and make appropriate applications.

6. Counselling and guidance. To interpret educational programs to the students; to encourage them towards life goals and appropriate programs; and to assist students with their educational or personal problems.

7. Community services. To provide opportunities through credit and non-credit courses to enrich community living; to increase and improve the participation of citizens in the affairs that affect them; and to release the potentialities of adults as wage earners, as creative beings, as social individuals.

Not every institution labeled "community college" will fulfill completely all seven of the above functions. Yet these purposes flow out of the functional needs of community members. In truth, recognition of these needs in our communities was the genesis of the dramatic spread of community colleges. Their dedication to meeting these needs distinguishes community colleges from all other institutions of higher education. It is the above seven purposes that the Washington Technical Institute should attempt to achieve.

Philosophical rationale: Many studies have revealed that social attitudes among parents and students create serious barriers to college attendance. This is particularly true in families in which the parents identify with semi-skilled or unskilled occupations and reject higher education.

The public community college seems to be demonstrating great power in attracting students of moderate and below-average socio-economic status. While cost is a critical factor, attitudes are to a degree separate from economics. Individuals from homes where neither parent has gone beyond elementary school or the lower high school years see their classmates planning to attend the local college, and they tend to consider college themselves. Consequently, the student body of the local college is becoming more and more representative of the community-at-large. This is of the utmost importance.

Institutions which warrant the name "community college" tend to be accessible, comprehensive, dedicated to lifelong education and adaptable to the changing needs and interests of its community.

Accessibility to an ever-increasing proportion of community members is a primary characteristic of community colleges. An institution must first of all be convenient. If students cannot get to it, the college cannot serve them. This has come to mean more and more commonly a college within reasonable commuting distance of a majority of the citizens to be served.

Finally, community colleges are accessible academically to a wide range of students. They are non-selective in philosophy because it is their function to enlarge educational opportunities and programs.

The community college admissions policy, frequently called "open-door," must be realistically related to the programs offered by each institution. Students with poor admissions credentials will have to earn their admissions to some programs by demonstrating capabilities in developmental, preparatory programs. The community college is no panacea for academic difficulties; it can only offer reasonable opportunities to overcome them through remedial and compensatory instruction.

The community college aspires to be democratic not only in its purposes but in its operations. It strives to reach young and old in a broad social spectrum, to be economical in cost and nonselective in its overall admissions policies.

If a community college is to serve a large proportion of its community, it has to embrace a wide range of purposes, develop the breadth of program essential to fulfill their needs, and evolve the ability to deal with the wide range of students thus attracted.

Comprehensive purposes and programs, essential as they are, will not be complete unless the institution develops the ability to serve students with a wide range of abilities. The community college must be able to deal with the brilliant, on the one

hand, and the hesitant, on the other. Variation in program must be matched with appropriate variation in teaching. Traditionally effective college instruction must be supplemented with new media and new methods -- individualized instruction, mass media, programmed learning, seminars, credit by examination, field work, internships -- and future improvements not yet envisioned. The road to learning must become a genuine "freeway" for the rich variety of students who seek higher education in increasing numbers. This is a mission of the community college. Many agencies have been created in answer to mounting demands for continuing education of adults. Community colleges must not supplant agencies already educating adults. But the community college represents for a sizeable proportion of the adult population their only accessible institution of higher education. It is the combination of the community college's nearness and its qualities as an institution of higher education that makes it peculiarly important as an instrument of adult education.

The college could be the institution which can mirror the community as a whole and help it to plan for its own improvement through educational undertakings. The commitment to life-long learning means more to the community college than simply offering typical college courses for adults, important as that function may be. As communities change, they meet new problems, many of which merit the attention and expertise of an institution centered on community needs. As adults encounter new and changing demands, the institution dedicated to fulfill the life-long educational needs of community members will have to initiate programs and services to advance the quest for solutions. Hence, the community college is different in some respects from the junior college of yesterday, as it must differ in part from the community college of today. Institutions adapt or they are superseded.

Student Recruitment. All colleges play important parts in recruiting students who might not otherwise go to college, and the community college can play a particularly effective role with certain types of students. The Washington Technical Institute might well set policies to encourage the following types of students:

Late developers: Students who "find" themselves late in their high school careers and may not be ready to compete in a highly selective college; but they might be able to do college work if given extra time or additional help.

Borderline students: Less in need of extra time than the late bloomer, but equally in need of an opportunity, is the borderline student whose final grades bar him from the college of his choice. A college with flexible admission standards could offer him a grace period in which to improve his performance. If the student has the persistence and the confidence, the proposed Washington Community College can afford to offer the chance. Furthermore, if the borderline student does not achieve his original goal, he can often be guided into another appropriate career program.

Students with dominant interests: If the community college's offering and the student's interest coincide, the student can pursue his main goal as part of a broadening general education. Although the liberal arts should be valued, they should constitute an impassable barrier for the student who has unusual ability in one field but falls short in others. Here is where flexibility of standards comes into play, differentiating between the student who proposes to transfer and the one who prepares for immediate employment.

Students from depressed areas: Among the youth in these sectors are some who have the potential ability to do college work but express no such ambitions, either because of home and neighborhood conditions, lack of money to go, or parental discouragement. The Washington Community College, in identifying and helping some of these youths, can assist the student's and the District's betterment.

Coordinating the Two Institutions. The concept of a comprehensive community college received overwhelming support by the President's Committee on Public Higher Education in the District of Columbia. Public Law 89-791 separates two-year programs into "clean" technical programs, such as business and engineering, to be offered by Federal City College, while other technical programs will operate in the Technical Institute. Such a separation could lead to problems in recruitment. Experience in large cities such as Los Angeles, Cleveland and St. Louis indicates that the disadvantaged students have reservations about a separate technical school. The academically disadvantaged want avenues of social and economic mobility and a confined technical school appears to lock graduates into lower classes.

Finally, employers are interested not only in entry skills but in potentiality for promotion. Their interest in the educational and cultural level of the job applicant is often equal to their interest in the applicant's specific vocational or lectured skills.

Rationale for Specific Career Programs. Several studies completed in the 1960's have particular relevance for program recommendations for the comprehensive community college for the District of Columbia. For example, "Employment in Metropolitan Washington; Estimates of Future Demand for and Supply of Professional Technical and Skilled Workers prepared by the U. S. Employment Service for the District of Columbia" (U. S. Department of Labor, July 1963), indicated that the District had and would continue to have the tightest labor market in the country. The report also recommended extension of public junior colleges to increase potentialities of beginners and to make on-the-job training easier.

The study stressed the skills shortage which made every occupation hard to fill at least as reported by one, and usually by many, District employers. To cite one category, "Semiprofessional Occupations," the study reported the following occupational shortages: registered nurses, technicians in the engineering sciences, accountants, stenographers; mechanical, air-conditioning and refrigeration technologists; programmers, commercial artists, and medical technicians.

A second study entitled, "Training for Occupational Skills in the Washington Metropolitan Area," by Laure M. Sharp of the Bureau of Social Science Research, identified the following career programs as important for the District: electronics technicians, engineering aides, programmers, draftsmen, commercial artists, sales personnel, and secretaries.

Donald Maley, in "Higher Education in the District of Columbia with Special Reference to Vocational and Technical Education and Industrial Arts: A Working Paper for the President's Commission on Higher Education for the District of Columbia," (January 31, 1964) pointed out the District's needs for education in the following: mechanical, civil, electronics, chemical and computer technologies.

Neighboring suburban two-year colleges have done curriculum studies whose findings yield ideas for program planning by the local Community College. Montgomery Junior College, for example, offers the Associate degree in the following curricula: Business

Administration, Dental Assisting, Education, Electrical Technology, Electronic Data Processing, Engineering, Engineering Aide, General Business Management, General Education, Home Economics, Liberal Arts and Science, Medical Secretarial, Medical Technology, Secretarial and Radiation Technology.

Recommendations for Plans of Study

A beginning institution cannot hope to open its doors with a fully matured curriculum. As a nucleus, it could offer these core clusters: (1) Business Cluster, (2) Engineering Cluster, (3) Health Cluster and (4) Public Service Cluster.

General Education Division: The curriculums in this division should be designed to educate students planning to transfer to four-year colleges or professional schools after completing their studies at the Community College. This division might also serve those students wishing to complete a two-year program in general education or to take courses for their own satisfaction. Since students often change their plans while in college and transfer from one program to another, changes should be encouraged and steered tactfully, through good planning and counseling.

Collegiate Technical Division: The curricula in this division should be designed to prepare students for a vocation, to offer additional training, or to organize courses for students' own pleasure. Programs within this division combine general education and technical education. The curricula should be adapted to the complexity of modern life and its rapid technological advances and closely related to the occupational and cultural needs of the community. They include:

1. Business Cluster -- Accounting, Data Processing, Marketing-Retailing, and Secretarial Science;

2. Engineering Technologies -- Civil-Construction, Electronics, Industrial Production, Chemical and Mechanical;

3. Health Cluster -- Nursing, Dental Hygienics and Medical Record Technology;

4. Public Service Cluster -- Government Service Assistant, Police Science, Food and Hotel Administration, Commercial Art, Urban Development Assistant and Recreation Supervisor.

Evening and Extension Division: This division could enable area residents with family and job responsibilities to pursue their education on a part-time basis. In its program the Evening and Extension Division could include:

1. College credit courses for transfer credit or for two-year degree programs.

2. College credit courses to meet job requirements or facilitate advancement in certain occupations and professions.

3. Special credit and non-credit courses designed to meet the needs of civic, cultural, business and professional groups.

4. Non-credit courses in appropriate subject matter areas in response to the expressed needs of any group large enough to warrant the organization of a class.

In addition to these three general program areas, the Washington Community College could develop other programs such as:

1. An educational skills center which would not depend on usual college admissions programs at all. The skills center would provide remedial work in reading, writing and arithmetic, personal counseling, and in many cases, programs leading to jobs. The skills center would also help to develop the potentials of high school dropouts.

2. A pre-technical program whereby students in high schools, particularly in the vocational areas, are prepared for automatic admission into community colleges.

Toward A Coordinated Planning Approach

P. L. 89-791 created two separate boards -- one for the Federal City College and the other for the Technical Institute -- with no legal provision for coordination between them. As they become operative, the two groups concerned with post-secondary education, together with the Board of Education, should establish machinery for coordinating educational planning efforts for the District as a whole -- children, youth, young adults and adults. Joint programs, use of resources and facilities, shared personnel are all essential if an integrated educational scheme is to emerge. Unless coordination takes place, programs will be fragmented. The three boards should establish and appoint subcommittees involving lay and professional personnel to coordinate policies, programs and budgets. Coordination could easily be achieved on the program and planning level, rather than at the political level.

Chapter 16

Special Education in the District School[1/]

Special education is concerned with providing adequate programs for children with mental and physical disabilities. For 1965-66, the distribution of pupils and staff in various disability categories are shown in Table 16-1.

Table 16-1

Distribution of Pupils in Various Disability Categories and Assignment of Staff, 1965-66

Disability area	No. of Teachers	Other Staff	Number Pupils				Teacher-Pupil-Ratio
			Elem.	Junior High	Senior High	Total	
Educable Mentally Retarded	350	-	2495	2767	-	5262	1:15
Trainable Mentally Retarded	43	7	352	-	-	352	1:82
Blind	3	-	12	17	12	41	1:13
Partially Sighted	4	-	28	21	14	63	1:17
Deaf	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Hard of Hearing	4	-	37	8	10	55	1:14
Homebound and Hospitalized	40	-	245	166	133	544	1:13.6
Crippled, Health problems	18	-	164	59	29	252	1:14
Soc. - Emot. Maladjusted	63	-	245	460	-	705	1:11.2
Neurologically impaired	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Totals	525	7	3578	3498	198	7274	1:13.85

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

The District schools reported no special education programs for the deaf or the neurologically impaired, nor were there any programs reported at the senior high schools for the socially and emotionally maladjusted.

The Educable Mentally Retarded were classed as Special Academic students in the above table, but were not included in a special education administrative unit. Speech therapy, too, was not considered a part of special education.

1/ Dr. Leigh Rooke and members of the Teachers College Columbia University Department of Special Education prepared the report on which the material in this chapter is based.

Since 1959, when the Office of the Director of Special Education was given "responsibility for the study and placement of pupils with health, emotional or behavioral problems...," the Director has been primarily responsible for intake and placement. The supervision of Special Education was assigned to building principals and general supervisors, none of whom is required to qualify as a specialist in the disability areas.

When the Personnel Department and not the Director of Special Education was authorized to assign special class teachers, another force for program quality control was removed. In short, the program for special education has been seriously handicapped by the organization for its development. The Basic Curriculum Track, retitled Special Academic Curriculum, included pupils who were supposedly Educable Mentally Retarded, but this program completely bypassed the Director of Special Education. The organization chart showed the Director of Special Education on a line relationship to the Assistant Superintendent for Pupil Personnel but not to the Special Education staff nor to elementary or secondary educational programs.

There have been some efforts at metropolitan area cooperation, In 1965-66, 36 non-resident children were enrolled in the District Program for the Physically Handicapped while a total of 223 resident children were being educated in private and public facilities in the District and Maryland. Despite this limited exchange, there has been little coordinated planning of special education services.

Severe weaknesses in the critical area of placement and evaluation have deterred effective program development and implementation. Although the disabilities of children and youth concerned are important to an educational system only to the extent that they constitute educational handicaps, it appears that educational diagnosis and the specialized skills of translating diagnostic data into curriculum plans have not been adequately utilized. The office of the Director of Special Education has been reduced to an assignment station after either the pupil personnel services or the health department has made a referral. Educational decisions for emotionally and physically handicapped pupils are made by medical staff, psychologists, social workers, guidance counselors and attendance officers, even though this is an aspect of education which requires special preparation.

Although placements are made on the basis of comprehensive medical, psychological and educational studies, visits to the various programs in the school and a limited review of pupil records indicated that such reports were incomplete and outdated. Written parental consent for special class placement was required only for those assigned to the Special Academic Curriculum.

The Director of Special Education's duties were delineated in the Superintendent's Circular dated May 17, 1967:

> He must organize, implement, and evaluate existing programs... as well as make independent decisions as to the functioning of the area of special education on the elementary and secondary levels...is responsible for planning, organizing, directing and evaluating the academic, emotional, physical and behavioral developments of pupils with problems, and is responsible for the identification, placement, adjustment and progress, and reassignment of pupils in such classes as Braille, health, hearing conservation, mentally retarded, sight conservation, V.I.C. and social adjustment.

In a Superintendent's Circular (April 13, 1966), the position of Supervisor (Special Education) was assigned to the Department of Supervision and Instruction, Elementary Schools, with no specification of duties. In fact there was no requirement for preparation in special education.

The new personnel policies (approved May 23, 1966) specified a requirement of "6 semester credits in the area of specialization." This includes teachers of the "trainable mentally retarded, the educable mentally retarded, the educationally retarded, visually handicapped, defective hearing, health and physically handicapped, and social adjustment." There is no separate salary schedule for special education. Perhaps for these reasons, few teachers have the professional preparation for special education.

Staff Training and Experience. A questionnaire on training and experience was distributed to all teachers involved in special education in Spring 1967 and completed by 287 teachers, more than half of the total special education teaching force in the District.

The size of classes with which these teachers worked could not be clearly discerned since only 184 of 251 respondents reported working with special classes, some in departmentalized programs in which they reported cumulative totals. Others are itinerant and resource teachers making the rounds among many self-contained classes and also reporting overall case loads. A total of 178 teachers did report working with 20 or fewer pupils, the modal range being 8-17 pupils per teacher. Of the 28 teachers working with Trainable Mentally Retarded children, 25 reported classes of 8-10 children, oversized for this kind of target group. Thirty-eight teachers of the Educable Mentally Retarded reported classloads of 20 or less, ranging from 14-17 pupils, also large size for such children. Teachers of the Emotionally Disturbed tended to have fairly normal sized classes of 10 or less.

Of the total of 313 college degrees which the respondents had earned, only 49 were in special education. Only 38 respondents reported ever having received State or Federal training grants in special education and, of this number, just eight were for full-time study. The overwhelming majority (201) of respondents reported having a Bachelor's degree, 62 had received master's degrees, four had an associate degree, seven had no degrees, and two had 6-year certificates or professional diplomas. The only areas of specialization where the number of master's degrees approached the number of bachelor's were in the crippled (6 bachelor's, 5 master's) and the emotionally disturbed (19 bachelor's and 12 master's). Of the 264 teachers who indicated the date on which their highest degree had been awarded, more than half (129) had earned it prior to 1955. Moreover, 205 of the 270 respondents indicated that they were not candidates for advanced degrees. One-hundred-eighty-six (186) teachers were not enrolled in any coursework at the time they completed the questionnaires.

The analysis of responses also shows that relatively few of the special education teachers have permanent licenses in their field. Of the 16 respondents working with the Trainable Mentally Retarded, only one was permanently certified, 11 had temporary licenses and four were on probationary status. Only one respondent reported being certified in the area of the blind and that teacher was working with children having multiple handicaps. None were certified in the area of the deaf and two had licenses to work with the hard-of-hearing. A similar pattern prevailed in the other areas of exceptionality.

In terms of years of experience in special education, 26 reported no previous experience at all; 75, less than three years' experience; 74 between three and five years' experience; 42 had six to ten years' experience; and 27 reported more than ten

years' experience. About a third of the teachers had joined the Council for Exceptional Children and some were members of other organizations concerned with specific handicaps.

A Special Education Department. At the present time, special education seems to be everyone's prerogative and nobody's responsibility. The administration of the program is fragmented, with a variety of departments and agencies playing dominant roles, some of which appear to be without clearly evident qualifications for the controls exercised. Without a unified and highly competent staff to develop and implement a program, the Director cannot exercise the creative leadership that such a program demands if it is to be effective.

It is recommended that: The only way to begin structuring a viable program is to establish a far more cohesive and autonomous Special Education Department and sever the line relationship between the Director and the Assistant Superintendent for Pupil Personnel Services.

The Special Education Department would take charge, not only of intake and placement, but also of organizing educational services, teacher recruitment, inservice training, curriculum design and cooperative programs with community agencies and institutions. Once the department established its identity, two major projects should be embarked upon as soon as possible.

1. A Diagnostic Center for Special Education should be developed where a team could plan and provide in-school screening programs and in-department supportive services where needed. The center might be located at the Sharpe Health School so that continuing diagnostic services could be provided to pupils there. The diagnostic center could provide a laboratory for training special educators from colleges and universities. It would necessarily draw on various resources from other institutions and agencies in the community.

2. A Washington Metropolitan Area Special Education Program should be developed in cooperation with neighboring school systems and institutions of higher education. This regionalization could be of considerable benefit in meeting the special education needs for the entire area. Where participating districts might not have sufficient numbers of children with certain areas of disability to warrant a first-class program, the region could support an optimum program. The Central Atlantic Regional Education Laboratory (CAREL) might serve as the catalyst and coordinating body in initiating this project.

Staffing the Special Education Program. With respect to staffing its program for the educationally and behaviorally handicapped, the District faces a two-fold problem. First, too many teachers working with children officially designated as exceptional have had little training or experience in special education. The demand for teachers trained in special education is so great that it far exceeds the supply. What seems obvious is the need for an intensive program to recruit, train, and retain a larger number of teachers for special education. Efforts will have to be made to develop and implement a quality in-service program in order to fill in gaps in the teachers' training and to help them keep abreast of developments in this field. Various financial incentives must be employed to encourage continued self-improvement as specialists with the handicapped.

Secondly, the problem of insufficient numbers of qualified special educational teachers is compounded by the fact that for every child assigned to programs for the handicapped, there may be at least two others who need such special help and are not

getting it. To mount appropriate special programs for these youngsters, an adequately prepared and expanded staff of special education teachers is essential. In all probability, this will require re-training of some teachers presently working in other special education fields. For example, there is not a single teacher who reports having been trained to work with the neurologically impaired. Although no data are available on the incidence of neurological impairment in the District population, it is quite possible that a sizable number of pupils are so impaired since the birth histories of impoverished children often show such serious congenital problems.

Programs in Special Education

General Provisions. The majority of special education programs -- e.g., vision and hearing handicapped, orthopedically handicapped etc. -- use the same curriculum guides as do regular classes. Special guides have been developed only for the Trainable and Educable Mentally Retarded children with mental ages (M.A.) of 2-8 and 3-12 respectively. For the EMR children, the lower limit for the M.A. of 3 is questionable since the admission eligibility floor is a chronological age of 7 years.

The classroom facilities for special education are less than adequate in many instances. For example, room size for the Social Adjustment classes falls below the standard for normal classrooms. Although sight conservation classes have a prescribed 100 foot-candles of light, other special education classes have the same low minimum 30 foot-candles as regular classes. The trend elsewhere is for 50 foot-candles in all classes, particularly in special education classes, because: (1) the prevalence of multiple handicaps, including vision defects, is high among these youngsters and (2) in classes serving the deaf and hard-of-hearing, the use of vision as well as the conservation of vision is of critical importance. There appears to be no policy concerning the siting of special education classrooms with regard to entrance, lavatories, or floor locations in multi-story buildings. This increases hazards of safety and controls for children with coordination problems, including those who are mentally retarded, visually impaired, or neurologically handicapped.

There is little difference in the equipment provided for the Special Academic Curriculum classes from the regular classroom. The sight-saving rooms include the usual chairs, other standard classroom equipment plus one typewriter and a talking book. The bases for determining standards for equipment is not specified nor is there any indication as to what the provisions are for other disabilities. Insofar as instructional materials are concerned the pupil allotment appears to be the same for pupils in special and in regular classes.

Presumably, a variety of health services are provided for the special education program but their availability is limited. There are 25 school physicians but they are available only on a half-day per school per week basis. An orthopedic consultant is available one half-day bi-weekly; a psychiatrist, one half-day weekly. Considering the size of many of the schools, medical service for individual evaluations and re-evaluations is minimal. Specialized medical-clinical services -- opthamological, otological, neuropsychiatric, cardiac, orthopedic -- as well as general diagnostic and child guidance are available at clinics of the D. C. Health Department. Since public health community clinics are multi-service resources, the extent to which the handicapped pupils referred by schools have priority for service is not clear. The Sharpe Health School has relatively extensive routine service but a great many exceptional children are in programs at other schools. The pupil-nurse ratio in most schools is at least 1000:1; at Sharpe School, the ratio is 125:1.

Referrals to the Office of the Director of Special Education for placement in a

special class are not reviewed by a placement committee, nor does a multi-disciplinary committee make periodic re-evaluations. Because of the multi-faceted problems of these children and the frequent difficulty in determining the primary handicap, the procedures now followed could be hazardous insofar as educational considerations are concerned. Since erroneous placement must inevitably occur from time to time, the lack of procedures for routine re-evaluation could keep a child in a less beneficial program indefinitely, adding further to his handicap.

Medical and ancillary services should be specifically designated for this program and for personnel to report and recommend to the Special Education Department. The Director of Special Education and his placement committee are then free to make educational diagnoses and placement, using all available information -- educational, medical, social and psychological.

The patterns of growth in the special education population compared with the general growth and enrollments are difficult to ascertain. The Educable Mentally Retarded (or at least those included in Special Academic Curriculum groups) showed a sharp decrease over an eight year period between 1959-60 and 1966-67. (See discussion of tracking programs.) The absence of waiting lists for service in any of the areas of exceptionality raises a number of questions: Are all youngsters being served? If not, are the children who would benefit from special education programs? What impact are they having on regular classes? What would be the gains if these youngsters were afforded an opportunity for developing their maximum potential? What is it costing the community for them to be inadequately educated and untrained?

In addition to a concern for comprehensive inclusion, there is a concomitant need for the earliest possible identification of children with handicapping disabilities so that educational planning and placement to ameliorate or correct these can be initiated before more serious problems develop. The Educable Mentally Retarded must be brought into the planning structure immediately; in overall numbers, this group constitutes the largest single disability category. Valid programs can be provided to develop the potential of these children to live useful and rewarding lives.

The Hearing Impaired Children

The program for the hearing impaired includes only 55 moderately hard-of-hearing children (37 elementary, 8 junior high and 10 senior high) served by four teachers. The District purchased services for children with more profound hearing losses. Six children were at the Children's Hearing and Speech Center; 124 at Kendall School and nine at Gallaudet. The itinerant speech therapist served 125 hearing handicapped pupils. Except for one child for whom no program was available during the past year, there was no waiting list.

The total of 319 children being served in programs for the hearing impaired represented a fraction of the expected incidence which, based on national estimates, would be in excess of 2,000 pupils. A Rubella epidemic a few years ago resulted in large numbers of children between two and three years of age having hearing problems, but no census to determine the extent of the problem has been made. Special programs will be needed within the next two or three years.

Adequate audiological information is a basic requirement for educational programming for children with hearing impairments. Diagnoses are provided by the District's Department of Public Health. The Clinical Audiology and Speech Pathology section of the Bureau of Maternal Health and Child Welfare reported that periodic re-evaluations of auditory functioning are made every three or four months and that provisions for

hearing aid maintenance are good.

Psychological assessments were either limited or lacking. When available, these usually consisted of an I.Q. score with little information or subtest scores or interpretation of findings. The key to educational placement appears to be the Bureau of Maternal Health which operates six maternal health clinics, the infant and pre-school division, the crippled children's services, Gales Clinic and a division of community standards in addition to the School Health Division. Under the auditory screening program, 52,000 children are programmed for testing each year. All health reports on screenings, testing and evaluation are sent to the Health Department's Coordinator of School Health Programs where they are assimilated and sent to the Director of Special Education with requests for educational placement. From this office, reports are sent to the principal of the receiving school and to the classroom teacher.

The weakness in this filtering system is that educationally significant information may be abbreviated or even eliminated. Each specialist is concerned primarily with his own area of exceptionality and no meetings are held for joint evaluation of the child in relation to his effective functioning with the disability. Since special education is not a part of the evaluation for planning but only for placement, it is not surprising that class patterns reflect substantial variations. Inadequate diagnostic information does not make possible planning a specific program for each child, particularly in terms of auditory-vocal competency. With the wide variability in ages, abilities, and achievement levels found in classes, appropriate instructional grouping becomes difficult. There must be considerable individualized instruction.

Classroom auditory equipment appeared to be old and of limited value. For instance, in one class with 11 pupils, eight headsets were in working order; in another, there were tensets for 15 children; in a third, equipment was not working at all. There were no musical instruments, Language Masters (tape plus visual presentations) or even tape recorders in the classes visited. Visual aids were few although what was available seemed to be used effectively. On the other hand, at the Kendall School, there was extensive equipment, a library of materials and an audio-visual technician to assist teachers in developing and using a variety of materials. There is no specialist provided for coordination and supervision of the total program for hearing impaired children.

Recommendations. With respect to providing programs for hard-of-hearing children, the Board must choose between these alternatives: (1) eliminate the present program and send all the children to the Kendall School; or (2) revise the program immediately to provide an appropriate educational program for each child.

Essentially Kendall is a District school by function: it now serves 125 of the 158 pupils for whom the District is purchasing services. It is economically impractical to operate an expensive and inadequate program for a few hearing impaired children. Presumably, hearing impaired children in regular schools spend part of each day in classes for the normally hearing. Such an arrangement would still be possible at Kendall by sending children for part of each school day to one of the neighboring elementary schools. The present isolated classes have too great an age span to be fully effective. By joint District-Kendall school planning, it would be possible to:

1. Establish a wing for children now in the Hearing Conservation Classes where intensive instruction in aural-oral communication could be undertaken.

2. Develop an administrative structure for close supervision of the program.

3. Establish a unit within the school for children with language disturbance or auditory receptive problems.

4. Lower the age of school entrance to admit children two to two-and-a-half years of age and provide early language training and use of residual hearing.

5. Appoint a consultant for the hearing impaired to coordinate and supervise the total program for these children.

Should the District decide to develop its own program, it must then take the following steps:

1. Establish an educational diagnostic center to complement the medical diagnosis.

2. Evaluate immediately all children in the Hearing Conservation Classes and in those being seen by the speech therapist.

3. Initiate an infant training program in homes, using teachers of the deaf, competent and skilled in child development, auditory training and language development.

4. Provide training workshops in audiology, language and speech development for teachers of hearing impaired.

5. Locate all classes for children with communicative disorders (hearing impaired and language disordered) in a single school.

6. Appoint a full-time consultant-supervisor responsible for all hearing-impaired children, whether in special classes or in classes for the normal hearing being served by a speech therapist.

The task force recommends the consolidation of services at Kendall School, making it the hub of the program for the hearing-impaired child.

Visually Handicapped

The District maintains services for blind and partially-seeing children, including both itinerant teachers and a special class (referred to as a "resource program"). There is also a private school, the Pilot School for Multiple Handicapped Blind Children. At the elementary level, the programs have moved from an "integrated" to a "segregated" status; visually handicapped children are now involved to a lesser extent with normally-sighted children in regular classrooms. The national trend is toward educating visually handicapped children in as normal a school setting as possible, providing supplemental instruction for each child by special itinerant teachers. The secondary school programs seem to follow national practices and appear to be effective in serving visually handicapped children. The teachers seem well qualified, particularly at the secondary school level.

Most teachers felt that both pre-school and school-age vision screening procedures were inadequate for locating all children needing help. Many felt that referral and follow-up services to correct and prevent vision problems were seriously wanting. Based on national incidence, a conservative expectation for the blind and partially-seeing population in the District would be approximately 50 blind and 250 partially-seeing pupils. The District's identified population is far below this expectation.

Teachers indicated that placement is permanent once determination has been made,

regardless of changed educational needs and circumstances, the child continues in the program. Admission and placement are decided by a single individual rather than by a team. Decisions are based primarily on health department reports. No written policy statements regarding admission and retention criteria seemed available. Despite the known increase in the numbers of visually handicapped children with multiple impairments, no adequate provisions for these children were found in the District schools.

Curricular areas in the education of blind and partially-seeing children, which are traditionally weak nationally, are especially weak in the District: namely, physical education, shop, laboratory sciences, some aspects of mathematics program and orientation and mobility. Basic equipment, such as tape recorders and portable large print typewriters, were not available in sufficient quantity. Modern processes for preparing large print materials had not been utilized.

Teachers felt that there were inadequate supervision and insufficient cooperation among such services as psychology, health, and social work in the schools. Many expressed the feeling that community agencies and volunteer services had not been adequately exploited.

Recommendations. With respect to programs for the visually-impaired, it is recommended that:

1. Programs for visually handicapped children should move to fully itinerant services, in line with national trends. This would permit flexible use of staff and would stimulate individualized instruction for children, particularly those with multiple problems.

2. Programs for the visually-impaired are very expensive; adequate financial support must be provided.

3. Pre-school services are essential to locate visually-impaired children as early as possible. Professional workers are then needed for follow-up and program implementation.

4. Clarification of eligibility for these programs is important. An interdisciplinary team should determine the admission, placement and retention of each child needing special services.

5. Records should be centralized and opened to teachers upon their request.

6. A full-time coordinator and a consultant should be hired.

7. The coordinator should build cooperative relationships with ancillary health and social services. More and better in-service programs should be scheduled for teachers of the visually-impaired.

8. A curriculum resource center should be provided where teachers can create, share and evaluate materials, aids and equipment. New technology -- electronic sensing devices, computer-produced Braille and print materials, compressed and expanded speech -- should be tested in use.

Physically Handicapped and Visiting Instruction Program

The Melvin Sharpe Health School is the core of education for children with crippling and other health handicaps. The principal of this school is responsible for three pro-

grams: (1) the Sharpe School; (2) the Visiting Instruction Corps (VIC) for homebound, hospitalized and emotionally disturbed children assigned to non-public schools; and (3) the Webster Junior-Senior High School for pregnant girls. About 1000 pupils are enrolled annually in the three branches. Of these, 250 attended the Sharpe School; over 600 were enrolled in the VIC program; more than 100 were in Webster School. The annual pupil turnover was estimated at 20 percent for the Sharpe School and close to 100 percent for each of the other two programs.

Referrals of students to the Sharpe Health School or the VIC are by principals, social workers, physicians and parents. Emotionally disturbed children are referred often from the Pupil Personnel Department, school principals or the Director of Special Education. For actual placement in the Sharpe Health School, approval is required from the School Health Services of the Department of Public Health and the public school Director of Special Education.

In the three services, the program needs of children and youth vary considerably from the regular school curriculum and from one group to another. The three programs are separated but supervisory and professional activities (services, supplies and instructional materials) are centralized in the administration of the Sharpe Health School.

Sharpe Health School. Three-fourths of the 250 children (approximately 185) attending the Sharpe School have orthopedic and/or neuromuscular disabilities; the others have a chronic illness. The most common diagnoses in the first group are cerebral palsy(82) and muscular dystrophy (22), with disabilities indicated as moderate to severe. The next highest frequencies are post-polio-myelitis (19), spinabifida (15), congenital malformation (13), and hemophilia (9). Asthma (12) and sickle cell anemia (12) are the most common chronic health difficulties.

The Sharpe School "specialness" is inherent in its physical design, which successfully promotes physical movement. An attractive building with ramps and railings to facilitate the mobility of its popualtion, it has well equipped therapy and service units. The school includes a medical unit with two registered nurses and two nursing assistants; a physical medicine program; occupational therapy; a food service program; a pupil-teacher ratio of 13:1; adaptive equipment; a speech therapy program; a vocational evaluation and training program; and other individual services, including guidance, counseling, psychological testing and job evaluation. Physical therapy is given to almost half of the Sharpe School population. Occupational therapy is scheduled for 45 pupils (18 percent). The program is directed toward evaluation and training of perceptual functioning and self-care skills.

There is considerable concern among the Sharpe School staff about the growing number of multiple handicapped children -- e.g., diabetics with emotional disturbance or visually impaired children with hearing problems. Such children may require itinerant services, as well as those available at the school. It is anticipated that a program for the brain damaged will be established at the school when funds are received from P.L. 89-10, Title III.

Since 40 percent of the students in Sharpe Health School are either cerebral palsied or muscular dystrophied (moderate to severe), special curricular and instructional considerations are essential.

Visiting Instruction Corps. The disabilities of students in the VIC program consist largely of emotional difficulties, temporary or acute orthopedic or health problems, and cyesis (pregnancy). VIC staff members work with children in homes, in hospitals and in special health centers. The nature of the disabilities of VIC students over

a dozen years can be found in Table 16-2.

Table 16-2

Disabilities of Visiting Instruction Corps Students, 1954-1966

Disability	1954-55	1956-57	1960-61	1962-63	1964-65	1965-66
Orthopedic	129	189	159	173	178	215
Health	92	184	224	176	150	184
Emotional	61	82	209	185	174	184
Cyesis	-	-	-	53	68	71
Totals:	282	455	592	587	570	654

Source: Office of Statistical Analyst, District of Columbia Schools.

The trend toward the provision of special education for pregnant teenagers accounts for the inclusion of cyesis cases as a VIC service in the Whipper Home (51 students), the Florence Crittenden Home (4) and home instruction (13), a total of 68 students for 1964-65.

VIC personnel try to arrange facilities for instruction in children's homes to assure the environment most conducive to learning in the particular setting. The VIC program is also conducted in a number of hospitals. For the emotionally disturbed, VIC services are provided in the Episcopal Center for Children (residential and day care for young boys), D. C. General Hospital psychiatric unit (one elementary and one secondary classroom), and a special class in Western High School (for disturbed adolescents).

Webster Girls School. Within space limits, pregnant girls are enrolled in the Webster School, a special school supported by ESEA funds. The enrollment at any one time in Webster is limited to about 115. The waiting list reported in 1964-65 was 613 girls. Of the 777 referrals during the year, only 164 girls (20 percent) were enrolled in Webster. VIC home instruction is available for these girls during the six weeks immediately following delivery of their babies. Many return to school (usually not the home school) after the birth of their children.

The problem of unwed mothers is a sizable one in the District as the referrals and the small percent of acceptance reveal. Continuing the academic education of the girls at Webster represents only a fraction of the need. The Webster School program is multidisciplinary. In addition to the regular junior and senior high school curriculum the school provides health and welfare services. Pre-natal and post-natal care are mandatory. Services of social worker, psychologist, nurses, nutritionist and physician provide necessary support during the critical period of teen-age pregnancy.

Transfer to Normal Programs. Transfer procedures differ for the three groups. A

physician determines when a physically handicapped child is ready to return to school; the parent relays the physician's report to the school. If the teacher has any doubts about the child's ability to attend regular school, he may request a written medical statement. The emotionally disturbed are transferred only after a conference decision by a team which includes a teacher, counselor, principal, psychiatrist, Director of Special Education and other concerned persons and agencies. The teacher usually initiates such action by gathering all relevant data for discussion with the principal. Cyesis students are transferred upon the recommendation of the principal.

Transfer from the Sharpe Health School takes the following sequence: discussion takes place at the bi-weekly morning meeting of the medical staff; a school report is forwarded to private or clinic physicians; the school pediatrician then usually talks with the parents. Regrettably, once transferred to a regular classroom, a pupil is not followed up.

Recommendations. The task force recommends the following actions to improve provisions for physically handicapped children:

1. Establish at the Sharpe Health School and at another location Educational Diagnostic Centers to which children will be referred for evaluation, educational planning and experimental individualized teaching. These centers should also accommodate very young children for specification of learning difficulties, prevention of additional handicaps and recommendations for educational program planning.

2. Define administrative procedures for testing and referring children to special programs and for expediting transfer to home instruction, in order to eliminate waiting lists and reduce the time lag between referral and placement.

3. Provide for articulation between and among the various special facilities and personnel. A comprehensive multi-disciplinary program should be planned for home-bound children, using various school resources.

4. Stop placing seriously emotionally ill children on home instruction on the grounds that the school lacks space and program. The practice is an evasion of responsibility, especially when supporting psychiatric and psychological services are not offered.

5. Assess each child in the Sharpe Health School and VIC programs as to readiness for interaction with non-handicapped children. To relieve the present isolation of these children, they should be permitted to join regular pupils in selective part or full-time school programs -- perhaps membership in District-wide pupil organizations, attendance at plays or the use of public facilities.

6. Establish an educational-recreational summer program for the children whose physical or emotional disturbances have interrupted school attendance.

7. Establish an infant training program for handicapped children immediately upon identification of their deviation. The purpose of such a program is to provide a pattern for learning, to assist parents in promoting the child's development and to prevent, where possible, intensified and secondary disabilities (multiple handicaps).

8. Employ certified specialists to teach handicapped high school students. Assignment of such area specialists as traveling teachers would provide quality instruction at the high school level for pupils with reduced school attendance. Appoint two qualified aides to the principal of the Sharpe Health School: one to supervise the

VIC program and the other, the total program for unwed mothers.

Social Adjustment Classes (Emotionally-Socially Maladjusted Children)

Social Adjustment Classes were located in 21 elementary schools and 24 junior high schools serving a total of 705 children. Sixty additional pupils, unable to attend regular classes because of severe emotional problems, were placed in private schools while another group was served by VIC program.

Two types of programs are provided: "full" and "half-way" social adjustment classes. The former function as one-room schools with pupils remaining in the program for varying lengths of time, usually a semester to a year. Pupils are assigned to "half-way" classes but continue attending regular classes until their behavior interferes with normal activities. After discussing the problem with the pupil, the social adjustment teacher decides how long he will remain in this classroom -- the time varying from a class period to several days. Thus, different pupils are in the social adjustment classroom at different times and there may be periods when none are present. The procedures followed vary from school to school according to the principals' ideas.

Placement in the social adjustment class is usually initiated by the teacher after a pupil has shown consistently troublesome behavior. The principal then requests a psychological evaluation. (Waiting periods in the elementary school are from two to four weeks and in the junior high school from three weeks to six months.) The psychologist's recommendation is referred to the Director of Special Education for implementation. In the junior high schools, placement is apparently made at times without waiting for psychological evaluation, for prompt assessment can be obtained only for children who have been suspended. Health or other evaluations are not required.

Pupils in social adjustment classes receive no supportive psychological services or therapy in the schools and no information is available concerning the amount and nature of private treatment, if any. Few parent-teacher conferences are reported held and many elementary schools do not have guidance counselors who could be a resource for disturbed pupils. In the junior high there are no regularly scheduled conferences between social adjustment classes and regular subject teachers. In only one school was a progress report required from the subject matter teachers. When the social adjustment teacher thinks the child is ready to return to regular class, a psychological reassessment is requested by the principal and another long wait occurs.

Social Adjustment Classes. The regular curriculum and materials are used in these classes presumably individualized according to pupil needs. Class size is limited to 10 pupils. There is more freedom of movement, self-paced instruction, physical education and creative activities. Although remedial teachers are supposed to work with all pupils who need help, this does not necessarily include social adjustment enrollees with whom some teachers refuse to work. The typical program at the junior high level consists of English, mathematics, history, physical education, art or music, sewing for girls and shop for boys.

Twilight School. Since most of the social adjustment pupils are 16 years old by the ninth grade and tend to drop out of school, few find their way into senior high programs. Boys between 14 and 16 years of age who do not adjust may be transferred to the Twilight School which meets in the late afternoon and offers special programs for pupils unable to profit from attendance in the day school.

The program combines social adjustment with a flexible curriculum. For junior high school boys, the Twilight School classes begin at 3:30 and continue until 8 p.m.

with a recreation period between 5:30 and 6:30. Enrollment in the elementary Twilight classes in March 1966 was 35; at the junior high schools, it was 89. The average daily attendance was 26.6 and 45.8 respectively. The Twilight classes are seen by its supervisor as "offering a significant beginning of the extension of the school day beyond the closing hours for special needs rather than those of maladjusted pupils."

Boys' Junior-Senior High School. This school had an enrollment of 50 boys in grades 7-11, placed there because of disruptive behavior and chronic truancy. It occupied a wing of a junior high school.

Placement in a Boys' Junior-Senior High School is based on recommendation of the Pupil Personnel Services. Except for "disruptive behavior" and "chronic truancy," neither the criteria for placement nor the extent of assessment of each child who is placed there are known. The average stay ranges from one to three years. No school psychologist is assigned to the school and no supportive services or therapy are provided. A consultant psychiatrist works with the teachers and not with the pupils. The type and frequency of evaluations of youth placed in the school are not reported. The staff consists of five teachers (only one of whom has had specific preparation for working with emotionally disturbed youth), one counselor/assistant principal and a consultant psychiatrist (one afternoon a week when all pupils are dismissed at 1:30 p.m.).

The curriculum is intended to be guidance oriented, with problem-solving taking precedence over structured courses. The stated purpose of the school is rehabilitation with the goals being improved attitudes, reasonable self-control, evidence of cooperation, regular school attendance and ultimately, a return to the regular school program.

Not surprisingly, most of the boys are academically retarded. Grouping is according to four categories: older/younger; physically larger/smaller; fair/poor work; and good/poor self-control. No pupil is permitted to graduate from this school; he must be returned to a regular grade twelve and graduate from there. The curriculum is restricted to basic courses in English, mathematics, history, art, family living and physical education. No science, arts, vocational or pre-vocational courses are included.

Over a ten-year period (1956-66) the Boys' Junior-Senior High School had enrolled 391 pupils. Seventy-seven (20 percent) were returned to regular classes. About an equal number, (74 or 19 percent) entered the armed forces and 71 (18 percent) were institutionalized. A surprisingly high proportion, about a third of the pupils (124, or 32 percent) were lost -- unknown and unaccounted for in the report.

Table 16-3

Disposition of 391 Enrollees in Boys' High School over 10 Year Period

Disposition	No. of Pupils
Returned to Regular Schools	77
Employed Full-time	74
Institutionalized	71
Unemployed, Left School	19
Entered Armed Services	13
Transferred to Private Schools	2
Moved from District	9
Transferred to Twilight School	1
Expelled from School by Board Action	1
Unknown or Unaccounted for	124

The educational function of the social adjustment classes is unclear. With no complete diagnostic study made and no therapy assured, there is little evidence that emotional-social rehabilitation can be achieved. Rehabilitation could in fact be prevented by delaying curative measures. The chief value appears to be in removing from regular classes a small number of children who create disturbances without actually suspending or expelling them from school. Educationally, these children apparently get less education in a severely restricted program than in their former classrooms.

Recommendations. The Board of Education must either take stringent measures to develop a strong and well-supported educational-therapeutic program for emotionally-socially maladjusted children or discontinue the program and refer those for whom the school cannot provide to another appropriate agency in the District or metropolitan area. If the Board of Education decides to provide a program for emotionally maladjusted pupils, it is recommended that:

1. The Department of Special Education be empowered to plan, direct and supervise the program using the services of a supervisor-consultant who is well qualified by education and experience to develop a program for the emotionally-socially maladjusted. The department should have responsibility for establishing the program -- criteria for admission, placement procedures, assessment policies, instructional program, supportive services, transfer regulations, staff requirements and qualifications.

2. Staff assigned to classes in individual schools should adhere to building regulations and schedules but be responsible to the Director of Special Education in fulfilling the teaching assignment. The duties, functions and schedules of all this staff should be clearly defined in relation to the goals and objectives of the Special Education Department. There should be standard in-service courses devoted to the education of emotionally disturbed youngsters.

3. Placement evaluations and regularly scheduled re-evaluations for all children in these programs must be expedited. A firm policy should be established which limits special education placement and transfer to the Department of Special Education and curbs teachers, principals or other personnel from making independent placements or transfers.

4. Discontinue the dual program of "full" and "half-way" social adjustment classes and build instead a program of social adjustment classes charged with clearly defined responsibility for the education of emotionally-socially maladjusted pupils. As children progress to a point where they can attend regular classes they should be sent to the classes part-time until ready to return to the regular school program.

5. Since emotionally disturbed youngsters are often found to be academically retarded, the staff aided by consultant specialists should redo the curricula of the schools for the purpose of making modifications and adaptations to meet the needs of these children, whether they be average, retarded or gifted. Special attention should be given to the remedial needs (especially in reading, writing and mathematics) and to the need for successful ego-building experiences.

6. A vocationally-oriented curriculum should be built for the junior and senior high school pupils which provides preparation for work and stimulation of interest in learning. It should be supplemented by a work-study program giving practical application for knowledge required, on-the-job training under school supervision, reinforcement of learned controls, opportunity for competitive success and ego-satisfaction.

7. The Boys' Junior-Senior High School concept should be reassessed in terms of basic educational goals and the ability of the school system to meet all of the mandatory commitments obligatory in assuming non-educational therapeutic responsibility. If the school system elects to commit itself to the operation of a therapeutic facility

in which an educational program is incorporated, it must provide an appropriate physical plant with treatment and other clinical facilities; gymnasium and swimming pool; workshops for therapy and pre-vocational and vocational training; and offices for a variety of psychiatric services. It must develop a highly competent and experienced team which includes administrative, medical, social, psychological and educational personnel in adequate numbers to provide individual and small group education and therapy.

The Educable and Trainable Mentally Retarded.

The District's programs for mentally retarded children have been severely hampered by the controversy concerning the Special Academic Curriculum.

The "basic track" was intended for Educable Mentally Retarded but included others who were not. It was not clearly a program for EMR children. Educable and Trainable Mentally Retarded children manifest learning problems that stem from impairments in intellectual, sensory-motor and affective abilities. The Educable Mentally Retarded (EMR) is usually defined as a child with a measurable individually tested I.Q. between 50 and 75. The national incidence of EMR is two to three percent of the average school population. The Trainable Mentally Retarded (TMR) child has a measurable I.Q. of from 35 to 50 and is unable to profit from programs for the Educable Mentally Retarded.

In the past the District has operated two kinds of classes for retarded: those in the Special Academic Curriculum of the regular school program and those for the Severely Mentally Retarded under the Office of Special Education. The Special Academic Program has been discussed in Chapter 9. Since 1959-60, the total school population has grown approximately 30 percent; during the same period the enrollment in the Special Academic Curriculum declined almost one percent in the elementary school, 4.2 percent in the junior high and 18.6 percent in the senior high for reasons discussed earlier. What is of concern is the question of whether there are numbers of Educable Mentally Retarded children who need a specially designed program and are not being provided one.

Educable Mentally Retarded. Placement in the Special Academic Curriculum was made on the recommendation of the psychological services, a part of Pupil Personnel Services, although there were reports of up to two-year delays in making such assessments. The factors considered were supposed to have included:

1. Review of the child's cumulative school and health records and reports of performance and progress by teacher, counselor, and principal.

2. Individual test of the child's intellectual functioning level together with clinical judgment of the school psychologist and consultation with teacher, counselor and principal. It is expected that children within the 50-75 I.Q. range will be considered for Special Academic placement.

3. Child functions at least three years below grade level. No child is recommended for placement in a Special Academic class who is doing satisfactory work in a Regular class.

4. The child must have a chronological age of at least seven years.

Promotion of pupils in the elementary Special Academic Curriculum to the junior high was made using these criteria:

1. Pupils who will be 13 years-7 months old by September 15 of the following school year may be transferred from elementary to junior high school if this seems desirable.

2. Any children who have been placed in Special Academic classes and who are not Educably Retarded, but were placed there because of remedial difficulties, should go on the regular list for junior high school and not on the Special Academic list.

These criteria lack the necessary definitiveness for guiding policy. They do not indicate under what conditions it would "seem desirable" to transfer pupils and why non-retarded are knowingly placed in classes for the retarded in the first place. Further, it is not stated by whom these critical decisions were to be made. The fact that this program is not part of special education and, therefore, not under the administration and supervision of specialists in the education of the mentally retarded probably contributed to the problems.

Three supervisors (two for elementary and one for junior and senior high school) were assigned to the Special Academic classes with no relationship to the Director of Special Education. They are under the jurisdiction of the Assistant Superintendents for Elementary and Secondary Schools.

Despite the extent of the District's need for a strong, coordinated program for Educable Mentally Retarded children, the Special Academic Curriculum lay in a nebulous area which was neither general nor special education and was sorely in need of leadership and directed goals. The building principals dominated the program; the procedures and provisions for these classes being as individual and as diverse as the schools in which they were located. Program organization and philosophy showed variance from school to school. In some schools, the program was organized on the basis of social living and social studies; in some there was a structured academic program in the morning and social living in the afternoon; some had all activities built around social living.

The Special Academic Curriculum teachers had a broad range of experience from less than one to more than twenty years. Their training was in such areas as elementary education, mathematics, reading, sociology and psychology. Few had any formal preparation for the teaching of Educable Mentally Retarded.

The task force found a basic dynamic quality missing, one which did not appear to be simply a matter of drab classrooms and buildings. There was a distinct impression that these programs were islands, not so much in the individual buildings but in the system as a whole. Each class seemed to be insular, as if each building were a school system independent of all the others.

There was no identifiable sequential program in the classes nor for the Special Academic Curriculum as a whole. Classes appeared to be initiated or terminated without regard to sequence and there was little, if any, evidence of planned movement from elementary to junior high to senior high. Children were neither happy nor unhappy; teachers seemed the same. The mentally retarded did not appear to be a clearly defined group but merely those with I.Q.s below 90, and they merged more than is generally true into the total school population. The teachers were mainly those willing to or assigned to teach these classes and not necessarily prepared for them. There was reasonable reliance upon native ability and common sense. Even this does not account for the lack of pattern of special education planning for the mentally retarded, nor for the isolated classes.

Supportive of these generalizations was the lack of evidence of a developmental program or a vocational emphasis; a dearth of diagnostic services for placement or re-evaluation; few adaptations, modifications and provisions for the multiply handicapped; a

mechanical-based progression from elementary to junior high; little concern about appropriate teacher preparation. Instead there appeared to be an emphasis upon things, rather than children, and an apparent inertia or absence of concern on the part of the principals to all of these problems. In fact real education for Educable Mentally Retarded was not being realized.

In all of this, there is a tremendous challenge for educational planning, creative innovations and utilization of the knowledge already available concerning special education for the Educable Mentally Retarded. Specifically, it is recommended that:

1. The Educable Mentally Retarded classes be incorporated into a special education program with clearly defined responsibilities and authority.

2. The program goals, objectives and policies be clarified. The curriculum structure must be reviewed and a definition of progressive objectives in goals appropriate to the EMR group developed.

3. Regular systematic individual pupil evaluations and periodic program evaluations be undertaken.

4. Teachers be selected for the program having had or undergoing special training for work with the Educable Mentally Retarded.

5. An early identification program be initiated with adequate diagnostic and evaluation procedures which will enable youngsters to be placed into an appropriate EMR program as early as possible.

6. Single, isolated EMR classes in a school building should be eliminated and appropriate provisions should be made for the multiply-handicapped children who are mentally retarded.

7. Experienced, skilled consultant services in the area of mental retardation should be provided for the Director of Special Education in accomplishing the integration of the Educable Mentally Retarded program into special education.

Trainable Mentally Retarded. Though the District schools had a total of 352 children enrolled in 42 classes in 19 school buildings, the program for the Trainable Mentally Retarded (TMR) was in an early developmental stage. The housing ranged from two facilities devoted entirely to the program which had a total of 14 classes to eight other schools with a single class each for the Trainable Retarded. The basis for placement in the training program was not clear. Firm criteria for admission to this program have not been made available.

A new curriculum guide for teachers of severely mentally retarded children was introduced in 1965-66 which incorporated defined goals of a realistic nature. Teachers assigned this program seemed to have a diversity of backgrounds other than special education and, more specifically, other than working with Trainable Mentally Retarded children. Since qualified teachers are not readily available, then their continuing education and supervisory assistance is even more critical.

The Report of The Trainable Child Committee of the Working Party on Education set out a number of valid needs and worthwhile goals but did not propose any priorities for achieving them. The immediate concern should be for a less elaborate foundation program, well-structured and sequential, on which further development can be based. A

planned program development can avoid duplication and prevent omissions of services by other agencies.

Recommendations. Mental retardation is a field in which considerable research and experience during the past few years have provided insights in program development so that such youngsters can be helped to live useful lives. Clear guidelines for programs for Trainable Mentally Retarded children are available to the District for its own planning.

It is recommended that:

1. The Department of Special Education take responsibility for building a valid program for Trainable Mentally Retarded, one in which the placement criteria are clear; the teachers are recruited and assigned on the basis of interest, training and commitment to the field; the curriculum and resources are especially tailored to the TMR population, and supportive services are provided.

2. The TMR program should be concentrated in six or so geographically accessible schools where adequate staff and facilities can be centered. The program should be sequential, beginning early and continuing on to a sheltered workshop experience for older youth and young adults.

3. The colleges in the area with programs in mental retardation should be invited to cooperate in developing joint programs of program experimentation, and teacher preparation. There are several strong special education departments in the area with interest in mental retardation which should be tapped for mutual benefits.

Survey to Identify Handicapped Children in Classrooms

A survey was undertaken to ascertain the nature and extent of handicapped children in regular classrooms in nine -- three each at the elementary, junior and senior high levels in high, middle and low income neighborhoods. Teachers of children in grades four, six, eight and eleven were given a comprehensive form with directions to complete and return one for each pupil in her classroom who appeared to display some of the physical, mental or emotional deviances described therein. The total pupil population in the designated grades was 2,079.

A total of 145 forms were returned. On the basis of the very small sample, obviously no significant conclusions can be drawn about the actual existence of these disabilities nor can the findings be projected with any confidence to the total school population. Nevertheless, the findings suggest the need for study procedures which would identify children with handicapping disabilities as early and as effectively as possible.

Based on teachers' observations and not verified by confirming diagnoses, a total of 145 children in regular classes were reported to have behavioral and/or learning problems marked enough to draw attention to themselves. The analysis of the forms indicated the following:

1. Of the 145, 33 were fourth graders; 33, sixth graders; 63, eighth graders and 16, eleventh graders

2. Consistent with other studies, there was a higher prevalence of presumed disabilities among males than among females by a 2:1 ratio.

3. Of the 145 children teachers suspected of having handicapping disabilities, confirming diagnostic information existed for only 15 (ten percent).

4. The prevalence of suspected disabilities seemed related to areas with weak provisions for special education. Of the 145, 64 (44.1 percent) were reported as emotionally maladjusted; 28 (19.3 percent) as mentally retarded; and 24 (16.5 percent) as having disability in vision.

5. The prevalence of children with presumed multiple disabilities exceeded normal expectations; the "average" number of disabilities per child was 1.2.

6. A total of 106 pupils were reported as having problems with reading and writing: 68 with reading and 38 with writing. Such learning difficulties are often symptomatic of conditions of a handicapping nature.

7. Children reported as having disabilities tended to cluster in some classes with no pupils reported by other teachers in the same school or even at the same grade level.

Acknowledging the serious limitations of a "teacher presumptive diagnoses" survey of this kind, the results support greater in-depth assessments which might begin with teacher-nominated cases. It is recommended that:

1. A comprehensive survey be made throughout the school system to identify children who are now experiencing problems and suspected of having disabilities. Beginning with teacher presumptive diagnoses and moving to in-depth assessment by trained diagnosticians (including college interns), a system-wide study would benefit the children concerned and provide data needed for planning programs and services which must be provided. Systematic provisions be made for obtaining early diagnoses of childhood problems so that educational and related provisions can be made before the disabilities seriously block learning and development.

2. Teacher skills be developed in observing children's behavior so that they will recognize the need for referral to sources of diagnostic information. Research has shown that in-service training in observation can sharpen the staff skills in identifying possible handicaps.

In Conclusion

A strong special education program is a necessity for a sizable portion of the pupil population across the nation -- estimated to be as high as 10 percent. In large city depressed areas, the number of children with handicapping disabilities may be even higher as a result of inadequate prenatal care, nutrition and general health deficiencies. What the exact situation is in the District with respect to disabling handicaps is not clear because of the unevenness in special education programs. Based on studies in other large cities, it would be expected that impairments requiring special education provisions and related services would be high.

A Department of Special Education should be organized, responsible for all aspects of the program and services for children with disabilities -- diagnoses, placement, instruction, personnel, supervision and research. The department should develop relationships with ancillary services and agencies -- health, welfare, psychological and guidance -- to enhance a team approach to diagnoses and planning and to minimize the long delays. A simplified and consolidated record system should be developed which

provides ready access on all pertinent information about a pupil in reasonable proximity to him so that it can be used in program planning and evaluation.

The Department of Special Education should undertake a complete review of the special education personnel to determine the qualifications and training needs of those presently in the area. On the basis of such an assessment, a cadre of qualified personnel could be identified as the core for program development, an in-service program could be inaugurated for upgrading teacher competencies and an intensive search could be initiated for new recruits.

The Special Education Department must take the lead in viewing the city child and particularly the inner-city child positively, realistically assessing his strengths and weaknesses -- mental, physical, social and emotional -- and then building a solid, sequential, individualized educational program. The special education area has dealt with "disadvantaged" youngsters for its entire history. It has a tradition for demonstrating that exceptional children can be dealt with on an individualized basis and that their strengths can be capitalized on to compensate for handicaps. The District must build a cohesive program of special education. The elements for such a program exist but they must be strengthened, supported and given a clear mandate.

Chapter 17

Instructional Materials and Resources[1/]

A curriculum today is to a considerable extent shaped around its materials and resources for instruction. Textbooks, films, television, computers, language laboratories, realia and buildings are some of the media of instructional resources which are available and to which educators should be sensitive. The city itself -- with its ongoing life, its personnel and cultural resources, its web of relationships and problems -- represents an educational resource or laboratory for learning for which there is less sensitivity and insight. To change the curriculum and its impact on individual learners, one must change the instructional resources with which he interacts.

Like most school systems, the District has failed to exploit fully new communication media, instructional materials and educational technologies. Even in the use of more conventional resources, the District is vulnerable to charges of inappropriate textbooks, meager elementary libraries, deficiencies in non-print materials and equipment, inefficient use of supplementary materials and over-caution and hesitancy in exploring emerging technologies. In the District, some of these failings result from the grossly inadequate budgets of the past. And, in some areas, the materials and equipment that should be available to classrooms are just now being marketed. For instance, self-instructional items, materials designed for the urban settings, and multi-sensory kits are just being published.

However, the fundamental cause for the District schools' inadequacies is tradition. Its planning is in the conventional channels of textbooks, workbooks, library books, maps, charts and globes, films and filmstrips. Except for the audio-visual materials, these are alloted on a per pupil basis.

The District was involved in early tests of educational television which languished and died for a number of reasons. It is now considering a proposal for computer assisted instruction. Under a Title III grant it has established an Educational Resources Center in which presumably "in excess of 2000 will have been trained in educational technology and the new media between April and October 1967." The Center was planned as a "vehicle through which ideas, experimentation, services and materials will be offered, shared, evaluated, disseminated and utilized by the teachers of both the public and private schools of the District of Columbia." At present, its program focuses more on inservice education than on production and dissemination.

The District's materials and resources problem is both short and long-range. The immediate need is to use what is available now more effectively while, at the same time, to begin to organize and plan for the production and application of the "software" -- the content and substance -- needed for the instructional technology and new media presently available and still being developed. Both tasks can and should be undertaken simultaneously.

It is recommended that the District schools should set a goal of a Multi-Media Learning Center in every school, together with regional or area centers for some resources which are more effectively handled from a convenient central location. If Washington is to become geared to a multi-media resources approach, it must change its

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1/ Dr. Phil Lange and Miss D. Marie Grieco prepared the report on which this section is based.

Table 17-1

Budgeted Totals and Per Pupil Allotments for Books, Periodicals and Other Supplies, FY 1967

	Elementary Schools		Junior High Schools		Senior High Schools	
	Total Budget	Per Pupil	Total Budget	Per Pupil	Total Budget	Per Pupil
Instructional and Office Supplies	$259,653	$2.83	$119,534	$4.11	$108,490	$5.71
Textbooks and Workbooks	$475,265	$5.18	$150,427	$5.18	$ 98,420	$5.18
Magazines and Periodicals	$ 13,763	$ .15	$ 8,712	$ .30	$ 5,700	$ .30
Library Books	$ 56,390	$1.00 1/	$ 58,340	$2.00	$ 38,220	$2.00
Maps, charts, globes, etc.	$ 11,010	$ .12	$ 2,323	$ .08	$ 950	$ .05
Totals	$816,081	$9.28	$339,336	$11.67	$251,780	$13.24

1/ Based on enrollment of 56,390 pupils rather than 91,750.

Source: Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation, District of Columbia schools.

attitudes and recognize how all media fit into instructional activities for today's learners. It will then have to plan, purchase, and produce accordingly.

Textbook and Supply Purchasing. The quality, age and condition of textbooks and supplementary materials have evoked much criticism. Complaints range from alleged discrimination in supply to schools in low-income neighborhoods, to antiquity and debilitated conditions of textbooks, to the inappropriateness of materials for the District's learners. During the past few years, funds from such sources as Title II, ESEA have helped with purchase of textbooks and other instructional materials, particularly library books.

Approved List Purchasing. For the most part, textbooks and instructional materials are purchased on contract from publishers, with 85 percent of orders in response to written bids. With few exceptions, all books must be on the approved lists. Only the Model School Division is exempt from this requirement. The process for ordering books begins in August when a circular goes to publishers asking them to submit, by November 1, any new books or other items suitable for school consideration. Emergency requests can be considered if the material was not published by the deadline. Five textbook committees (members are school personnel appointed by the Superintendent) include: general, senior high, vocational high, elementary and adult education. The directors and supervising directors participate when committees evaluate books in their fields. From November through February, the committees meet bi-weekly to begin a maze of long-established procedures -- obtaining publishers' nominations; staff review and screening;

preparation and printing of the approved list; consideration and adoption by the Board of Education and publication of the Approved Textbooks Lists and Requisitions. The 1967 list showed a total of 1,027 additions, 222 revisions and 508 deletions. Five or six copies of the approved lists are then sent to each school for preparing orders.

On receiving the lists, the schools have a few weeks for preparing a purchase order. Within this time, the principal determines which books his school will order within the limits of the pupil allotment granted for textbooks and other materials. He also decides how to split the per pupil allotment among the various teachers. Principals differ in the methods used for preparing the purchase order and in establishing priorities. Typically, the high school principal meets with department chairmen in his school to determine their needs. In some of the smaller elementary schools, the principals consult with each of the teachers. There are bound to be dissatisfactions with these arrangements. New teachers frequently have no way of deciding which books they will use. The department chairman may be arbitrary in his decisions. A new course which would require a new textbook must be planned at least a year ahead of time. And, more serious, many teachers have no idea how to get a book on the approved list of how to order books at all. The process is cumbersome and restrictive.

Once the purchase order has been prepared, it is submitted to the central office where it is checked for errors and discrepancies (such as ordering 25 copies of the teacher's edition). After checking, the order is sent to the Finance Office to ascertain that the amount is within the school's allotment. The Finance Office then sends the order to the computer office where purchase order is prepared for the publishers and the schools. The orders are sent out in July, the beginning of the fiscal year, almost a year after the process was initiated. Contract terms require delivery within 90 days -- a time lag which does not necessarily guarantee the books' arrival in the schools by opening date. Anything can delay delivery: there may be no one at the school during summer to receive this shipment, or, if someone is there and willing to sign a receipt, he may not be able to check for damage or mistakes. While publisher representatives are helpful in clearing up problems of damaged or non-conforming shipments, these inconvenience the pupil. Many publishers have difficulties in meeting simultaneous delivery deadlines from so many school systems.

The entire purchase procedure, especially the timing, inevitably hamstrings efforts to secure materials for class use by opening day. Delaying orders until after July 1 illustrates again the incongruity of operating a school system on an academic calendar while trying to conform to the federal fiscal calendar. It should not be impossible to modify the procedures to take into account the schools' needs.

Urban-Appropriate Materials. Nor is this the final problem with the textbooks. Serious flaws mark the content and quality of materials emanating from the publishers. In Fall 1966, the House Committee on Education and Labor's Ad Hoc Subcommittee on De Facto School Segregation held four days of hearings on "Books for Schools and the Treatment of Minorities." The testimony disclosed some improvements in the availability of materials appropriate for disadvantaged and minority group children. Appropriate, insofar as materials produced are concerned, may mean:

1. Materials which are multi-racial, multi-ethnic, multi-social class -- through the text or content, the illustrations, or both.

2. Materials which are urban-oriented rather than suburban or small-town, depicting life in the urban setting with its problems as well as its cultural riches.

3. Materials which present the contributions of various minority groups to the American story.

4. Materials which aim at helping to develop an understanding of the world which surrounds children and youth today, through literary and social science selections (e.g., Martin Luther King's Letters From A Birmingham Jail and James Baldwin's Blues for Mr. Charlie).

5. Materials which draw on the art, music, dance, drama and cultural heritage of many groups and societies.

6. Materials which use the contemporary story of emerging nations to help children understand the story of America's emergence.[1/]

Integrated School Books, a bibliography of 399 pre-school and elementary texts and library books, was prepared by the NAACP, and the NEA has published A Bibliography of Multi-Ethnic Textbooks of Supplementary Materials with several hundred entries. Quantitatively, the situation is improving although the questions concerning instructional materials and resources which are particularly appropriate for the urban and minority group youngsters are still far from resolved. An outpouring of materials designated by publishers as "appropriate for use with the disadvantaged" does not mean that these necessarily fill the void or correct the inadequacies which have existed. In fact, while notions about what is wrong with the treatment of minorities in texts and library materials are relatively clear, valid criteria which would help direct efforts at improving the situation are not quite so. The District produced its own teacher resource bulletin, The Negro in American History, in 1964.

It is recommended that the District prepare or adapt criteria to be applied to selection of materials for its pupil population. Alone, or with the other large cities, the District could move publishers to produce a variety of curriculum resources for the urban population making these criteria. The flow which began with ESEA needs now to be channeled and directed. The District should take the leadership in doing so.

Multi-level, Multi-media Materials. The approved lists only infrequently include multi-level and multi-media materials now being published. Dominated by textbooks and other printed materials, by libraries which are collections of books, the curriculum rarely employs non-print resources except for group instruction. The use of several media -- print and non-print -- is rare. Varieties of multi-sensory materials have been developed, most often packaged quite differently from the conventional textbooks. These include various kinds of kits with materials for individual and class use, some of which are visual, some audio and others manipulative. Some are print, others non-print -- "sound, touch, move and make." There are units containing individualized, self-instructional materials at different levels of reading and interest. Some include considerable expendable materials. Publishers are producing instructional units which come complete with text, laboratory equipment, supplementary materials, charts, audio-visual aids and tests. If these are submitted by the publishers and producers, and it must be assumed they are, such materials have not found their way to the approved lists nor are they in evidence in many schools.

It is recommended that the District encourage testing multi-level, multi-sensory materials with various pupil populations. It is also recommended that the budget for

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1/ Passow, A. Harry, Statement for the Ad Hoc Subcommittee on De Facto Segregation of the Committee on Education and Labor of the House of Representatives, August 31, 1966. Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1966, p. 246.

non-text, non-print materials be increased substantially and that these be on the approved list of materials for school purchase.

Most purchases seem aimed at group instruction. Very little is available for helping the teacher individualize instruction by making readily available to the pupils materials which are appropriate and self-instructional. Little is available for differentiated needs within the class when materials are ordered in and for the total class units. It should be noted that the rich resource of the less permanent but educationally valuable paperback book has not been formally used by the system.

Audio-Visual Materials. The Audio-Visual department serves four functions: (1) operating library of audio-visual materials; (2) evaluating, selecting and procuring such materials; (3) arranging in-service and curricular programs for professional meetings and classes; and (4) maintaining equipment and offering technical assistance.

In 1966-67, the audio-visual library catalogued 11,173 prints of 3,386 subjects. Of this total, 4,510 were sound films dealing with 1,256 subjects; 6,663 were filmstrips dealing with 2,130 subjects. During the school year 1965-66, the department received 52,821 requests for sound films and filled 88 percent of them. Of 26,731 requests for filmstrips, almost 96 percent were filled.

Weekly delivery and collection are made to a staff member at each school designated as the "Building A-V Coordinator."

Audio-visual materials are selected on the basis of an evaluation of materials suggested by teachers, school officers and publishers. Department heads and committees for each level and each area of instruction do the screening and evaluation. Following allocation of funds among departments and areas of instruction, requisitions are prepared for purchase bids. Except for a small group of leased films, all materials are purchased outright. The department budget has been implemented from time to time with federal categorical aid, including funds from NDEA, Title II, ESEA and other sources.

It is recommended that the District broaden its concept of "audio-visual aids" to go far beyond the 16 mm. sound-film and the 35 mm. filmstrip. For example, the developments in 8 mm. film, sound and silent, have opened up possibilities for low-cost, flexible materials stored in a building's own Instructional Resources Center. Pre-recorded tapes, records and other non-print materials should be assessed for use in the schools. They should be made more readily accessible for classroom use. Reduced cost of some items should make it possible to have them located in schools rather than at the central storage audio-visual library.

Instructional Media and Educational Technology. Developments in instructional materials and technology add to an already wide spectrum of educational media and tools for learning. These include such things as:

Open and closed circuit television
Video tape recorders
Tape recorders, including cartridge-leading and pre-recorded tapes
Overhead transparency projectors
Individualized audio-visual devices
Photocopy machines
Telelecture and telelearning devices
Computer-assisted instruction systems
"Talking Typewriter" and computer-based responsive environment systems
Self-instructional programmed materials and multi-level learning kits

Language laboratories
"Dial access" systems for information retrieval
Automatic camera, still and motion
Cartridge-loading and self-threading projectors

Instructional technology is sometimes thought of only in terms of complex computerized systems for presenting and retrieving information. Technology need not be complex nor need it be thought of as "machined." Above all, it should not be thought of in terms of an appendage but rather as an integral component of a basic instructional system. In fact, the most effective use has involved a determination and specification of content, its conversion to educational media and its dissemination into classrooms.

The promise for helping individualize specific aspects of the learning experience (in the sense of a single learner interacting with content selected for and by him) using technology is great if one begins with the instructional problem rather than the hardware available. Miniaturization, portability, accessibility and the possibilities for condensing quantities of data into easily-grasped, recorded sights and sounds could mean more effective learning. However, many elements (learner, teacher, goal, equipment, and space) must be unified to attain the promise.

The issues and problems related to adopting educational technologies to the District schools to make learning more productive are just beginning to be explored. It would be wrong for the District schools to purchase a variety of hardware to be dropped off with the current order for textbooks at every school. It would be just as wrong for the schools to ignore or misread potential which exists in the educational media and available technology.

It is recommended that the District plan and develop Multi-media Learning Centers at each school. These centers should include the library but much more. The centers should include storage and ready retrieval of a variety of print and non-print materials which the learner can use by himself. In addition to available resources of all kinds (including cartridged film and tapes, programmed materials, books, etc.), there should be production facilities for teachers and pupils to prepare their own materials.

The gaps between the inadequate facilities now serving as libraries, the relative absence of materials at most of the schools, and the Multi-Media Learning Center recommended by the task force, is obviously a large one. Buildings to be completed under the 1969-74 program will include such features as space for preparation of instructional materials, individual study carrels in the library, Skills Development Rooms for small group instruction and individual use, and pre-installed conduits for electronic aids and TV. These construction design commitments are a step forward. With some adaptations they are possible and necessary in every school for teachers as well as the pupils. To move in this direction will require major policy changes with respect to what can be purchased, how and at what level of funding. It will also require cooperative planning by several neighboring schools in developing Area Media Centers for sharing resources and facilities.

Library Services

The task force found it difficult to understand how a city and a government which house and support one of the greatest national libraries in the world; which take for granted the indispensable role of the Library of Congress in a vast network of international, national and local functions, services and programs; which need and use the various resources and personnel of that Library in the most crucial and constructive areas of professional, political and personal activity -- how, in short, a city like

Washington can time, cause and condone conditions in the District's school libraries which are substandard measured by yesterday's needs and goals, alarmingly inadequate by today's vision and hopeless for tomorrow's world.

By yesterday's criteria, there is no school in the District system which meets the 1960 Standards for School Library Programs. By today's vision, sketched in the soon to be published 1967 Standards for Media Centers -- the organizational pattern not only separates the facilities, functions, services and staffs of the Department of Library Services from the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction: it also will interfere increasingly with any attempt to promote the concepts, materials and the services for the unified programs recommended. As for tomorrow's world, existing obstacles to an effective system must be drastically modified, if the District schools are to provide the basic resources needed for learning.

When school opened in September 1966, there was no library in 86 elementary schools (64 administrative units). Fifty such schools with library space designated were awaiting the assignment of librarians. In the past few years, the number of elementary school librarian positions was substantially increased as were programs for modifying space for libraries. In some instances, basement rooms were converted into library quarters. The Department of School Libraries had developed some "transitional" libraries, defined as "a carefully selected collection of books which is identified with a central location, organized for use by children and teachers, and staffed by a core of volunteers." Parent volunteers kept the libraries open for several hours.

Until 1964, the funds for elementary school library books were simply not provided. At that time, an allotment of 50¢ per pupil was made and this was raised to $1 per pupil in 1966. The Parent-Teachers Association has been the prime originating and financial force in many elementary schools, especially those located in the higher income areas. For instance, in one small school in Northwest, from 1964-1966, the Board of Education provided approximately $175 for books. During this same period, the PTA contributed over $1000. In 1966-1967, this same school received 200 books under Title II, ESEA.

Only one school housed and circulated non-print materials from library quarters consisting of space partitioned in a corner of the cafeteria. This school was participating in Project Discovery, a commercially-sponsored effort designed to study the effect of saturating classrooms with audiovisual equipment and materials.

At the secondary level, the situation is somewhat better. All schools have at least one full-time librarian and at least four have two. But, conditions are still poor due to the large student populations, lack of clerical help and restricted budgets. The programs at each of the secondary schools differ according to concepts and qualities of the librarians and the principals. Facilities ranged from fairly adequate to generally inadequate. Some librarians seemed aware of the trends toward the use of non-print in libraries; some welcomed the challenge, granted the proper provisions for the necessary staff and budget.

The use of paperbacks varied. One junior high school literally saturated a library room which barely has room for three or four standing browsers with racks of paperbacks. Some librarians personally collect left-over paperbacks from the Postal Departments dead letter office. The policy which prevents schools from purchasing paperbacks with library funds needs change.

Contractual limitations which evidently require librarians to secure special materials from designated jobbers only cause gaps in collections. Procedures for ordering government documents are so cumbersome that the Washington schools suffer from the

supreme irony of being cut off from one of the most important resources in town. The decision which prevented the ordering of pre-processed books under Title II for 1967 is a sample frustration stalling basic efforts simply to make books available. Preoccupation with problems of this sort saps energy from an already overburdened and shorthanded staff.

Community Support for Libraries. The Department of Library Services consists of Supervising Director, an Assistant Director and an Educational Specialist in charge of Title II. The position of Supervising Director was first funded from 1961-1963 by the Junior League in a pilot effort to convince the Board of the need for central staffing and services. When funds for these exploratory years were about to run out, individuals and groups rallied to the cause, supported and sustained by the Action Committee for D. C. School Libraries. The campaign resulted in a budget for the position. Lay citizens and community groups have demonstrated awareness of libraries as a sound educational need and have pushed dramatically for such programs. The first two elementary school librarians were funded in 1960 through private grants. The position of Assistand Supervising Director is still "temporary" and funded by non-budget sources.

The League of Women Voters conducted a two-year study of local libraries (1964-1966), first looking at the structure and operation of the D. C. Public Library and its relationship to other educational recreational resources of the city; in the first year, and in the second year, examined the relationship of the Public Library to the school libraries to find "new ways to bring effective library services to economically deprived areas and persons." The LWV report to the task force called for much more planning and coordination of library resources, more generous appropriations. The Action Committee for D. C. School Libraries began in 1958 as a citizens' protest deploring the lack of libraries in all but senior high schools at that time. The Action Committee, while hoping that it can withdraw from activities which should be part of the schools' normal operations, continues to maintain close contact with school library personnel.

The Urban Service Corps recruits and trains volunteer workers, acquires books and funds from private sources and works closely with other community groups as well as the Department of Library Services. A handbook for library volunteers has been prepared jointly by the Department of Library Services, The Urban Service Corps and the Library Service Committee of the D. C. Congress of Parents and Teachers.

The Reading-Is-Fundamental Project (RIF) is an action program of the D. C. Citizens for Better Public Education, in cooperation with the D. C. Congress of Parent-Teacher Associations, home and school associations and the Action Committee for D. C. School Libraries. Objectives of this project are: (1) to put inexpensive books of high interest into the hands of children for keeping; (2) to stimulate more extensive use of school and public libraries; (3) to help make parents aware of the availability and the utility of inexpensive paperbound books and (4) to promote publication of a greater selection of paperbound books for children in elementary grades. The original aim was to provide five books each to 60,000 children in 100 schools in areas with median family incomes below $5000.

RIF has demonstrated what the other groups have also proved to varying degrees: that parent groups have boundless energy and talent for organizing effective operations which should be the normal responsibility of the school; that they can raise and sustain both educational and financial support on a significant scale; that they are in touch with some of the important power bases of political support in the community; and that their activities often receive the kind of widespread publicity which naturally accrues to prominent persons involved in such activities. The parent groups cannot be faulted

for their interest, enthusiasm, sincerity and diligence. The best of them have made it clear that they would like to phase out their own operations in the library areas.

As long as they are perceived as suitable substitutes for services which the school system should be funding systematically, parent projects will be in the delicate position of performing a service and possibly retarding acceptance of a professional service. In addition, while some programs are aimed at the more disadvantaged areas, the activities and contributions of more affluent parents and community groups seem unevenly weighted.

In many instances the schools are blamed for neglect in providing reading materials. While this criticism is usually well founded, the entire community must share responsibility for supporting the kind and qualities of environments and opportunities that enhance the aims of the school and the society. Thus, the energies and talents of parent groups might well be used to canvass all areas of the city to locate quality bookstores that sell materials suitable for children and young people. A study of economic barriers to purchasing books for children might be followed by an investigation of sources of paperback books in the community: supermarkets, groceries, five-and-tens are likely spots to canvass to determine the present availability and to improve the opportunities. Parents might establish an organization similar to the Children's Cultural Foundation in New York which could have an enormous impact on improving the varieties of programs offered. Parent groups might subsidize the rental of non-commercial films to be shown in community centers, film mobiles, recreation areas, neighborhood theaters, museums, public libraries etc. They could raise money for reproductions of art for the schools, or for many more trips to the numerous educational, cultural and recreational areas available now but remote from too many youngsters. They could help library personnel catalogue and publicize community resources. They could serve as liaison between various community centers of interest and pertinent departments in the school system to spot avenues of mutual concern and cooperation; to alert librarians of changing exhibits, programs, lectures, and other resources.

While many of the above activities fall under traditional library services, they are of a different dimension from the activities which currently engage parent groups. The schools should immediately enlarge their professional and clerical staff, as well as their complement of collections necessary for educating today's children in this changing world. The American Library Association's Standards for Media Centers should guide both short and long-range planning in this matter. The parents then could be encouraged to add services to enrich both curricular and individual needs and interests within the school and community. Continuing cooperation between parent and school groups should be formalized with liaison officers.

As parents shift to other kinds of activities, the school board would shoulder the need for financing purchases of library books thereby flattening the differentials that now result from varying gifts of the PTAs.

The Schools and the Public Libraries. As a supplement to the public education system of the District of Columbia, the public library has provided services to the schools since their establishment in 1896. The Schools Division Services selects sets of books for classroom needs reported by teachers. They consider reading range, subject interest, cultural and social backgrounds, children's interests and related curriculum needs. In addition, special book sets are selected for particular groups (those with poor vision, emotional problems, language differences) and for special programs (such as Project 370 for the gifted, teaching teams or ungraded primaries). "Book baskets," available to teachers of grades one through nine, are delivered and collected by public library transport. Since the service predates any centralized elementary

school libraries and since it still offers the only service available to many schools without libraries, the tradition of classroom collections continues to flourish among teachers who apparently equate a book distribution service with a library program.

The School Library Department Personnel appreciate the board services of the public library, while they worry that this relation handicaps the growth of school libraries. The public librarians seem sensitive to the difference between their supportive, temporary services and a fully developed school library program. Once the schools take on their full responsibilities, the resources of the public library could be reclaimed to more general use.

The experience of the public library bookmobiles might be a pilot for the schools' experimental media mobiles and the museums' new decentralized services. As libraries elsewhere determine ways of reaching the heretofore unreached in poverty pockets, District librarians should be shaping applications of new techniques. In some cities, community librarians operate out of unimposing neighborhood centers; roving story tellers roam through ghetto areas; inexpensively converted station wagons with books and film projectors cruise areas, stopping to circulate books and/or show films; programs of particular interest and people with special knowledge are deployed in the area.

Community Resources. Most school systems suffer from apathy toward their own community's resources. Within each city, cultural resources and places of public interest are often more familiar to out-of-towners than to local residents. So it is with Washington, international magnet for so many visitors. Tour directors, special interest groups and cultural centers prepare packaged instruction, displays and presentations so effective that the District schools should incorporate some of them systematically into their own instructional materials.

Under a foundation grant, the District schools and members of the Smithsonian Institute's Office of Education and Training collaborated to produce a curriculum-oriented tour of one aspect of the museum's collection and a guide, Reproduction: The Perpetuation of Life. While the task force commended the cooperative effort as a beginning it had serious doubts about the textbook approach employed. The uniqueness of the museum was nowhere fully realized nor its potential probed for discovery. The major criticism of the guide was the expectation conveyed that children must find printed answers to printed questions in a museum. Alternative means of communicating (tape recorder or a taped audio guide, for example) were not developed. Once again, the child who is not a good reader is penalized and his capacity, his latent interests and sensitivities left unplumbed in the most promising of stimulating environments. The bibliography on reproduction relies heavily on textbooks, omits better recent trade books and references to 8mm or 16mm films (one of the most effective ways to approach the subject).

It is recommended that this cooperative approach be sustained in exploring the uniqueness of visual perception in various media while respecting the differences in non-verbal and verbal inquiry. Specifically, such efforts should be focused at finding the best methods for arranging displays and exhibits or other ways of informing audiences. The traditional approach is not merely inadequate in museum experiences; it can destroy the motivation of a child to pursue his own quests. Museum and school personnel must jointly create displays which will enhance the adventure in learning that starts with inquiry. Present arrangements of exhibits are, of course, under serious study by museum personnel. The District schools should catalyze the community leadership extending the vast cultural wealth which distinguishes the District of Columbia.

The task force looked at some of the instructional resources within the District

which had affected its conception of a total educational environment. On apparently opposite ends of the spectrum are the Museum of Natural History of the Smithsonian Institute and the storefront enterprise, Community Laundries. Both of these groups project plans for experimenting with storefront centers.

The Laundry Community Center is a demonstration project supported by a grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity and a loan from the Small Business Administration. It is intended as a profit-making corporation with stock to be owned entirely by persons in the community at nominal rates of $2 a share. The Center is based on the idea that services should be offered in natural activity areas such as laundries, groceries or pool rooms. Two storefront areas have been connected by an inside doorway; the laundromat on one side and the Center on the other. People may use the laundry facilities without entering the Center; however, to capitalize on waiting time at the laundry, coffee and friendly personnel are next door in the Center. The inclusion of a collection of books and paperbacks, mainly second-hand copies in old bookcases, local newspapers and mimeographed announcements of various services are on hand. While the Center was not planned to serve children, they have been some of the most consistent visitors. With few materials and activities prepared for them at the time of their visit, they have spent time drawing and coloring on backs of the sheets social workers ordinarily use for case study observations. Children's drawings were displayed prominently on the wall juxtaposed with the works of professional artists.

The Smithsonian Institute is planning to rent a storefront and transform it into a "drop-in museum." The intention is to bring bits of the museum to people who never enter its formal and formidable building. It is hoped that small centers will be used as naturally as people patronize supermarkets. The emphasis in the collections will be on displays and objects that are touchable, workable and dispensable.

There is high potential in the variety of storefront and neighborhood centers to enhance relationships between schools and communities, formal and informal programs, institutional and non-institutional commitments in the wars against educational, cultural and economic poverty. The schools can and must break traditional patterns and seek multiple uses for such centers. Informal media centers could be supplied with books, paperbacks, newspapers, magazines, radios, record players, television, photographs, works of art, games etc. Some might simulate living rooms; some might be study centers with spaces for students from overcrowded apartments to find moments of relative quiet; some might include production facilities and equipment such as cameras and darkrooms, art supplies, etc.

New combines of schools, institutions of higher education, community leaders, representatives from the performing arts and the cultural institutions, social and welfare workers, might explore the possibilities for using the real world as a classroom. In some pilot programs, the community leaders and even school dropouts have acted as "advisors." Possibilities vary and diversity should earmark development.

The District has some of the richest cultural, political, social and recreational resources of any community and these must be blended into the curriculum. What is meant are not organized tours of the District but ways to immerse individual and small groups of learners in community life. Identification and involvement are the objectives, not the sightseer's detachment. Unfortunately, neither the schools, museums, libraries or galleries have the know-how or models to arrange their rich content for individual learning or small group instruction. If such learning is to plunge deeper than the usual look-see-listen routines, District personnel who are aware of new strategies are needed to convert their resources into teaching-learning centers.

Finally, there is the city itself with its rich and tangled mass of problems which provide a learning laboratory for the social sciences and the humanities. Conceived in this manner, the school and its classrooms no longer contain all instructional resources -- the community and its life provide learning opportunities as well.

Toward Developing Media Centers. The District must construct a national demonstration of the potential impact and programming of school media centers. At the moment, the schools are not in a position to do the job alone. At the present rate of planning and growth in school libraries it would take another generation just to reach the 1960 American Library Association Standards now being revised. The present plans to place a librarian in every school library are a basic necessity, nothing more. However, if there is to be speedy growth in elementary libraries, conditions and if the budget forces alternative decisions, the need for supervising personnel should take priority. The requests for library personnel in the current budget are far too modest in comparison with needs. The figures are based on traditional staffing ratios which are already obsolete in terms of the need for developing media centers. The task force recommends that immediate priority be given to increasing the trained supervising staff. The pattern of growth must be coordinated through increased services offered in more generous space and budget. A strong and well qualified staff with complementary skills should multiply central services in an interim period pending development of media centers. Such a centralized staff should offer services and leadership to the schools in all the materials of learning, print and non-print. Larger library and media departments would allow for special liaison teams to demonstrate programs and services. Teams, composed of librarians, media personnel and teachers from various levels and content areas, could prepare and present programs using multi-media, prepare bibliographies and for special purposes, media lists. They could provide in-service training to teachers and librarians in the selection, evaluation, use and production of materials.

Other liaison staff members could coordinate curriculum planning with media possibilities or they could conduct research and disseminate information.

In some school libraries interim decisions can be made now to furnish audio-visual materials for local use. As a start, film strip and slide viewers, overhead projectors, 8mm projectors, tape recorder and the materials appropriate for these devices should be provided in sufficient quantities to circulate to classrooms. Training for optimum use of these aids should accompany their being placed in schools.

Given the present facilities and conditions it is almost certain that adequate service cannot possibly be accomplished by each individual school. Equipping many media centers to serve different geographical areas is the feasible short-range solution. Development of such centers would mean bypassing traditional steps now in progress to provide a space for a collection of books with a person in charge. Media centers would supplement local libraries which lack services and resources, staff and spacing. They would provide centralized cataloging of all materials for local libraries, though not through its own plant. Commercial services for books should be used; services for non-print are not presently available. With advance planning and with use of local volunteer or aide talent, computer-based book catalogues can be made available to all teachers in all schools. This would be far cheaper and more efficient than the present card catalogues.

It is recommended that while media centers are being planned, mobile media units be financed and put immediately into operation serving schools on a rotating basis. Some should be available in various neighborhoods after school hours, on weekends and during summer vacations.

Chapter 18

School Plants, Facilities and Maintenance[1/]

The District of Columbia educates its population in 185 buildings, more than a third of which are 50 years old or older. Eight school-owned buildings and rented commercial space house the administrative and supervisory services. There are four warehouses and a maintenance shop.

Table 18-1

Number of Buildings by Level of Instruction or Type of Use, Fall 1966

Level of Instruction or Type of Use		Number of Buildings
Elementary Schools		138[a/]
Junior High Schools		27
Senior High Schools		11
Vocational High Schools		5
Teachers College		2
Special Schools[b/]		
Armstrong Adult Education Center		1
Sharpe Health School		1
Total Educational Units		185
Administration Buildings		8
Service Buildings:		5
Warehouses	4	
Maintenance Shop	1	
Total Number of Buildings		198

a/ Does not include demountable buildings at 6 elementary schools.

b/ Does not include Americanization School, Boys' Junior-Senior High School, Capitol Page School, Stay School, and Webster Girls' School, all of which are located in other buildings.

Source: Department of General Research, Budget and Legislation, District of Columbia Schools.

The task force did not undertake a building-by-building study of existing plants, population projections or maintenance conditions. The Strayer Report did such an examination using Strayer-Englehardt Score Cards to evaluate critically the adequacy of the buildings. That report made specific recommendations for eliminating some buildings that were either unsafe or inadequate and for consolidating a number of small schools. Some of these recommendations were followed, others were not.

1/ Dr. Henry J. Rissetto prepared the report on which this section is based.

Despite the fact that the greatest cuts in Congressional appropriations have been in capital outlay requests, some progress has been made. In the years 1953-1966, Congress appropriated $109,709,722 for new construction -- an amount representing 49.1 percent of the Board of Education's requests. During the same period, Congress appropriated $10,861,350 for permanent improvements -- 52.3 percent of what the Board had requested. In that 13-year period, Congress appropriated just under half (49.4 percent) of what the Board had asked for in new construction, additions or major rehabilitation.

Between 1953 and 1966, the District built 21 elementary, 10 junior high and two senior high schools; replaced one elementary and one junior high school; and added structures to 36 elementary, eight junior and two senior high schools. The bulk of new construction has gone into areas which are predominantly Negro. (See Map.)

In October 1965, the Superintendent of Schools reported:

> Thirty-seven Washington schools currently in use (32 elementary, four junior high, one senior high) lack the necessary facilities for a complete program. School buildings like the Hearst and Stoddert, for example, have been inadequate from the day they were occupied. Schools like these must have libraries, health centers, special rooms for science, reading remediation, assemblies and food service if they are to be considered modern in any sense of the word.

The six-year public works program which the District Commissioners approved in August 1966 calls for new structural additions to 71 elementary schools and modernizing an additional 32.

The FY 1968 Capital Outlay Budget requests for $63,269,500 includes funds for 65 construction, addition and rehabilitation projects. These aim at four objectives: (1) to increase classrooms to reach the Board's earlier staffing standards and to eliminate overcrowding; (2) to begin implementation of new Board staffing standards now in effect; (3) to replace obsolete buildings with more comprehensive and efficient facilities; and (4) to begin providing pre-kindergarten space in the more disadvantaged areas of the city. The justifications detailed the possible effects of each proposed project in each attendance area. However, they envisioned no really innovative use of facilities or development of plant laudable though the above objectives are.

The Department of Buildings and Grounds is currently charged with responsibility in four areas:

1. Determination of need for new and also expanded educational facilities encompassing public pre-school through local post-secondary grades.

2. Developmental and consultative assistance to all other educational offices, in setting educational facility for various types of instructional units.

3. Maintenance of the existing school plants; receiving and channeling requests for work to the D. C. Office of Buildings and Grounds.

4. Operational and custodial building services for the D. C. public schools.

Ultimate authorization and execution of items 1 and 3 rest with a separate non-Board agency (the District government), though projects are initiated by the Department.

Determination of Need for New Facilities. Decisions regarding need for new facilities, additions to existing buildings or modernization involve complicated, technically demanding and time-consuming conferences on the part of the Buildings and Grounds Department. Were all decisions really reached and implemented arbitrarily (as segments of the District population now believe) they would in fact take far less time than they do.

The Assistant Superintendent and the Planning Engineer, assisted by statistical and clerical personnel, are responsible for programming new construction. Their efforts generally are directed toward stepping up facilities to match pupil-population growth, replacing obsolescent buildings and modernizing to meet current educational demands. However, the Board of Education's newly enacted policies for lower pupil-teacher ratios, lower maximum class sizes and greater attention to individualizing instruction when added to the pupil population growth, have had a substantial impact on the flow of projects through this office.

Complicating these efforts is the nature of enrollment projections for the pupil population of the city as a whole and for the designations of school areas: 22 elementary areas, 7 intermediate areas, and 5 senior high areas. Overall school enrollment projections are prepared annually by the Office of the Assistant Superintendent for General Research, Budget and Legislation. These projections are designed for short-term planning (a year or two), using a straight-line statistical technique. This technique lacks the resilience to reflect more sudden and/or subtle changes, with the consequence that plans cannot reflect the long-term growth needs.

The Buildings Department has attempted to modify these externally prepared projections to minimize the differences between projections and actual post-construction facts. This involves contacts with other agencies and sources, internal and external to the school. Continuous contacts are maintained with the National Capital Planning Commission, Redevelopment Land Agency, National Capital Housing Authority, as well as independent agencies directly involved with population, housing and/or demographic factors. The D. C. Urban Renewal Operations Committee, if skewed more toward planning, could also offer useful insights on population ebb and flow within the district.

Despite a running record of municipal building permits, zoning actions, and construction data on numbers of bedrooms planned, Buildings and Grounds has admittedly not been able to gear the District's growth to valid three-to-seven year projections of its own.

Sophistication exists for charting valid statistical profiles on population and school enrollment growth. What is missing is the manpower to do the statistical forecasting. A trained statistician with broad and local insights is a pressing need in Buildings and Grounds. However, many government, municipal, and special public and private agencies are involved in population and enrollment projection activities for all sorts of purposes in the District. An alternative solution, and one that could reduce efforts, would be to establish one District agency to serve as one data bank to all school planners concerned with D. C. population flow. The installation of computerized data banks will increase the consistency of many planning activities which now produce discontinuities based on assorted projections.

A statistically competent demographic staff would interpret the design in terms of known specifics about different family patterns found in different types of housing: ethnic, racial, economic, denominational factors; single vs. multiple family units, family size, incidence of bedrooms, housing cost-quality, owner vs. rental tenure, land redevelopment impacts, vintage, and physical condition.

The need for valid, longer-term projections of enrollments in both an overall D. C. pattern as well as in smaller segments of population (blocks or census tracts) is pointed up by another serious problem: the many man-hours and the vigorous leadership exerted in trying to balance attendance areas with potential capacity. The attendance area decisions are sometimes planned three or four years in advance of completion as part of the expansion program's rationale. By the time occupancy takes place, the assumptions on internal migration of population have often proven invalid and the "balancing" activity exhausts more time, often to little avail. It would have been more economic and efficient to have had a more valid insight into the expected development (in-and/or out-migration) of an area based on information from a bank of census data. Thus, the task force recommends establishment of a central (but cooperatively programmed) population and projection unit which can offer both the short-term projections for annual planning, and longer-term data for longer-term planning.

The imperative for longer-term planning, replacing the near-emergency posture of current planning, concerns other officials and agencies responsible for site identification or acquisition and other complexities. For example, the Assistant Superintendent of Buildings and Grounds has a seat on the Capital Planning Commission, Redevelopment Land Agency and National Capital Housing Authority, plus contacts with the D. C. Urban Renewal Operations Committee and Central Relocation agency. Yet, he has neither time nor staff to feed the information gleaned from these involvements into departmental planning for facilities. The chasm could be bridged by setting up a Policy Planning Unit in the Department. Such a unit should initiate and stimulate more active participation with other agencies.

Hopefully, more comprehensive information and insights could permit coordinate construction programs and correlate them with expected population changes, as well as with the development of neighborhood social and welfare programs. This comprehensive planning should be reflected in the Six-Year Public Works Budget.

Schools are destined to play far broader roles as community centers, in use virtually 'round-the-clock. The increase in social services possible under the federal Model Cities Program is but one aspect of the new versatility for school buildings which should permeate planning for educational facilities.

The Planning Engineer is responsible for site identification analysis and selection. This aspect of the Office's tasks has inherently more problems than any other. One major difficulty has been the minimal lead-time available to inform residents in the impacted neighborhood of the site decisions. Therefore, community resentment has been stirred by inadequate preparation for relocation and/or redevelopment activities to be completed consistent with the prescribed timing of the new school unit. The Board has been involved in several site selection controversies each year. There is need for more and clearer communication among the Board of Education's Office of Buildings and Grounds and home owners, tenants, community groups and parents associations before sites are contracted for new schools. Discussions should transmit full information on school requirements and purposes in site selection. In addition, such efforts should seek public opinion on the benefits and/or disadvantages of proposed sites, leading to well-publicized hearings after alternatives have been explored and discussed.

As a prime force in this field, Buildings and Grounds should be expanded and assigned to public information duties.

Spokesmen for the Office of Buildings and Grounds have said, "facility people should not pre-dictate function, or organization or curriculum through building design." They add, "we desire and often stimulate the evaluation of continuously improved or modified 'standards' of facility design."

Both statements imply a continuum of ideas, aspirational changes, or stimuli from instructional sources which keep facility design abreast of instruction. While this implication may be true, it shows a vulnerability which has slowed facility design behind instructional technology and practices.

At any point in time, a school unit to be constructed in the District is assembled from a set of standards of various instructional or service units. These standards are developed cooperatively by the Office of Buildings and Grounds (which provides design, drafting, and technical assistance) and a variety of central administrative personnel (who incorporate the subject or activity requirements into the guide-lines). Ultimately, the standard is drawn, supplemented with equipment lists, and submitted to assistant superintendents, a Business Advisory Committee, other central administrative personnel, the Superintendent, and the Board of Education for adoption.

Reviews of standards are attempted every two years. Educators in the District are invited to feed in valid changes as they are devised. Minor changes do not entail Board approval; major changes are put through the same process as new standards. This review procedure hopefully elicits critiques from practitioners who can judge the standard unit's worthiness upon experience.

A new school plant is then assembled from the component standards, to meet a specified size (enrollment/capacity). The overall layout, however, is not standardized, since topographic or site factors dictate various shapes and/or grouping of facilities. Assemblage, detailed drawings, specifications for construction, and engineering services on design of mechanical systems are performed by the District Government's Office of Buildings and Grounds. The developing plans and specifications are periodically fed back through the Board's Office of Buildings and Grounds for critique and review of their consistency with the educational agency's program.

While other cities (Chicago and New York notably) have shifted almost all school architectural work to private firms who seem to speed the flow of design innovation and/or material changes into the projects at no higher cost, the local D. C. flow of projects has seemingly been productive. This aspect of organization is not under specific analysis in the report.

Once, there may have been a time in the evolution of America's educational system that instructional techniques, organizational arrangements, and learning activities were so static and identifiable that they could be contained and processed with standardized units. This has not been true for many years. Instructional techniques, organization and learning activities are all highly fluid areas of research, investigation and reportage today.

Thus, it is imperative to see production of educational facilities as tools to advance the educational enterprise and as a dynamic process. In such an evolutionary enterprise, pilot plant attempts must be considered worthy and defensible, a place for learning and for transmitting knowledge into subsequent projects. Certainly, planners of multi-million dollar construction must show greater willingness to invest in what industry calls "risk capital". Such capital should be used to generate added knowledge, insight, and sophistication about the business of facilitating the educational enterprise to an optimum degree. While facilities do not "teach," they do play a role in the comprehensive environment established for the learning process.

The task force recommends that a Research and Innovation Section be designated, staffed and charged with the task of generating interest and attention to a more productive dialogue between user and designer of educational facilities. Such dialogue

should touch on the design, role, climate, environment and equipment needed for contemporary and avant-garde instructional and learning activities in the District's schools, even if such activities are not currently operational in the schools. Research should look into the design of assorted types of educational units suited to the District's urban, high-density land-use patterns and housing problems. It should be allowed and encouraged to analyze the feasibility of different solutions to the urban-school-center concept. Here are a few sample inquiries:

> How can services be consolidated within the school plant facility (the school-community center)?
>
> What are the possible strengths and weaknesses of a broadly interpreted educational park vs. separated components?
>
> How functional are the high-rise educational units?
>
> What factors enter a consideration of building schools for the very young, including day care centers?
>
> Schools, housing and shopping center combinations: how practical are they?
>
> Which choice is right in specific cases: rehabilitation and modernization vs. alternatives?
>
> Should Washington schools install environmental systems for year-round use? What should be their nature?
>
> How does a system develop building flexibility and resilience for change in operational, organizational, or instructional techniques? Examine self-inquiry, large-group instruction and remote instruction, including "off-site" potentials.
>
> What educational potentialities exist in non-school facilities (e.g., storefronts, neighborhood centers)?
>
> What are the requirements of supplementary centers (i.e., environmental sciences, humanities, vocational-technical, arts, etc.) which are to be used for specific kinds of learning experiences?

In addition to the design of buildings and other facilities, this Section could examine the redesign of existing instructional space to make these usable with technological media.

The Research and Innovation Section would be an <u>exploratory</u> arm of the office. It could discover and generate relevant information or ideas about standards for school facilities to be considered by the responsible authorities. The ultimate test of effectiveness of such a section would be the elimination of standards because of their inconsistency with dynamic continuum of educational facility evolution.

Energetic and creative investigation should be undertaken into internal redevelopment of old structures along contemporary functional lines, not only aesthetic and environmental lines. Until the unlikely day that all of the District's plants are actually new structures, a great deal can be done to revitalize all of the District's plants. Thus, they may be <u>considered new</u> operationally, environmentally and instructionally.

Maintenance Needs of Schools. The complex task of maintaining approximately 200 school buildings is a difficult one. The General Maintenance Controller receives an average of 30 to 40 requests per day for assorted maintenance tasks in various schools. Of these, approximately 90 percent are for unanticipated repairs. These unanticipated requests for maintenance must be differentiated from general maintenance scheduled for "down times" of recesses or summers.

The actual scope of many requests depends on site inspection. On occasion, such determinations require architectural and/or engineering sophistication. After the determination of scope is made, the actual services are requested through the District Government's Construction Office. Here they must be programmed as a work order to be performed by a Repair and Improvements Group or, if complex and costly, by contractor(s). The inevitable time-lag between request and repair has been further complicated by the number of modifications in existing school facilities resulting from curricular or instructional change.

In a real emergency, the D. C. Construction Office can go directly to contractors for a job. However, the normal sequence between the decision (at the Board of Education's Buildings and Grounds level) to a direct effort in the school takes no less than 45 days, what with bidding procedures, nature of the drawings and specifications needed, and the extent of the priority of need. In some instances, these steps have resulted in seven or eight months' delay.

Aside from the lag inherent in multi-agency activities, the complex task of plant maintenance can be assisted in part by greater attention to the following:

> Sharpening the criteria by which a request is categorized as a first, second, or third order priority.
>
> Feed-back to the requesting principal on action to be taken; the decision of priority and the possible timing of the repairs.
>
> Teaching the principal the descriptive terms for a necessary repair, to clarify the urgency of a situation.
>
> Stating the bases plainly for "emergency" requests, thus lessening the pressures on skilled repairmen.
>
> Expanded allocations for preventive maintenance activities, rather than staffing and budgeting for maintenance brought about by deferred attention to those items of highest request frequency or unnecessary failure. A great deal of requested maintenance, of other than "emergency" nature, would be unnecessary if funds and manpower were applied to a far greater degree in the widely assorted activities of preventive maintenance and equipment upkeep. Savings derived from preventive maintenance, plus the profit margins paid to contractors on repair projects (often necessitated by inattention) might offset the manpower costs associated with additional personnel on preventive activities.

It is recommended that to reduce negative attitudes toward maintenance procedures "flying squads" of maintenance specialists be created. These squads or individuals therefrom would be dispatched only to tasks of less than one-day (or some reasonable amount of time) duration. Their prime purpose (other than repair) would be to get small jobs done rapidly and thus offset the frequent complaints of "little jobs" which take

"a long time" to get maintained through normal channels, probably because of a low priority order. These "squads" would go far toward offsetting the frustrations at the school unit level, and the accompanying neighborhood attitudes, typified by "it takes forever!" observations.

Operational and Custodial Services. The Superintendent of Operations oversees the operational and custodial services of the District of Columbia school plant involving considerable manpower with varied skills and training widely ranged. The superintendent is assisted by two persons -- one responsible for custodial activities and another for mechanical operations. The custodial activities are directed by five field supervisors in contact with building level engineers and custodians in some 40 units each. They perform regular inspections at the building levels, respond to requests for direction, help delineate specific custodial responsibilities and determine if local personnel can do minor repair and/or replacement jobs to reduce the frequency of maintenance requests.

Needless to say, these five supervisors cannot adequately cover plants in their jurisdiction. Other than monthly meetings with top-level custodial personnel, very little contact is possible.

It is recommended that the number of field supervisors be increased and that they be assigned responsibility for instituting small repairs and replacements, thus lessening the lag in maintenance activities. It will be necessary to provide, or gain access to, repair shop(s) to accomplish this.

It is recommended that the department begin a systematic inventory and evaluation of custodial workers at all levels, geared to upgrading staff members. This process should identify able manpower for assignments to more mechanically sophisticated units, or for training to help their moving up into higher license classes.

It is recommended that the District establish and operate an in-service educational program for different categories of custodial personnel. One program already exists at Cardozo. Such a program should be aimed at providing greater at-building maintenance sophistication to reduce the need for repairs and replacements and raising manpower productivity.

It is recommended that the department study the currently changing use-patterns of the schools as they become more and more school-community centers, operating on a longer day to arrange proper cleaning and upkeep activities in a more effective way. The sharp decline in the daytime-only school use and the rise of the day-afternoon-evening use patterns must bring changes in custodial services. There must be increased activities and support for custodial personnel in neighborhood activities designed to elevate respect for the school plants and their role as public resources. Were this accomplished even to a small degree, the incidence of vandalism and plant destruction might be reduced, adding another factor toward fewer replacements and repair items.

Finally, it is recommended that factors of reliability and performance of the hundreds of components in the schools should be computerized and used as input information for the architectural and engineering personnel at both Board of Education and District of Columbia construction, repair, and operational offices. Without a doubt, frequency analyses can be made which would identify sources of recurrent breakdown or maintenance calls. The identification of performance and reliability of materials and equipment in some 200 buildings and the use of the information could result in a further lessening of the monumental task of caring for the physical plant of the District.

In Conclusion

The District schools are just beginning to undertake the replacement and modernization which it badly needs. It has a tremendous backlog of obsolete and substandard facilities. What the District is urged to do now is to use its capital outlay money to plan and implement facilities whose design is in the forefront for urban needs.

With few exceptions (e.g., the new Woodson High School), the buildings could be transplanted to the suburbs or elsewhere and, except for greater green acreage, look the same. If the plants are to serve the community in other ways than schooling from 9 to 3, then their design, location, flexibility must differ from today's universal sameness. If a building is to provide supplementary learning centers to be used for irregular periods of time to furnish specialized resources to youngsters from the entire District, its design cannot approximate present egg-crate construction. New technology will not be used effectively in classrooms which have only the tablet armchairs of yesteryear; different kinds of space utilization and technical planning is needed. While it has been advocated that the school can be the hub of community neighborhood renewal, little planning has been done to test this idea. Two new institutions of higher education are to be built in the District in the immediate future; planning could coordinate these facilities with elementary and secondary school projects to develop an educational complex. Year-round use of facilities will require designs different from present standards.

The recently approved 1969-74 school building construction program does include some design features which are new for the District: air conditioning, individual study carrels, instructional materials and skill development centers, pre-kindergarten suites and community center facilities. The department is exploring the possibility of rental space pending new construction; it may well be that for some purposes, such space is as adequate and more appropriate than more permanent facilities. The department is also considering educational complexes using existing buildings in some different fashion. The proximity of some buildings might well serve as the base for testing the feasibility of educational complexes. The department is also exploring possibilities of buildings located near the D. C. boundaries which, if provided with rich enough resources in staff and materials to offer programs not elsewhere available, might serve to attract suburban-District cooperation. A special education center, for instance, might be one of the early projects.

There are times when the fortress, prison-like structures of the past can be converted into more useful learning space. Modernization and rehabilitation is sometimes feasible and desirable, given creative imagination in planning. The department should explore ways of using old space more effectively.

Finally, existing buildings are going to be with the District for a good many years to come. There is no reason why they cannot be kept in good repair and maintained so they are attractive to the learners and the community. Basic custodial care which will keep the building free of institutional odor, accumulated dirt and minor breakdowns must be the goal of upgrading the present personnel and procedures. Buildings are important determinants of learning environment, facilitating or impeding instruction. The department must be given greater control of its own planning and design and, having been given such control, must exercise it with imagination to meet the District's facilities needs.

Chapter 19

Extra-Curricular Activities In and Out of School[1/]

As used by the task force, the term extra-curricular or co-curricular included organized clubs, teams, service organizations and similar activities sponsored by the school, usually directed by school personnel, for which no academic credit is granted. For at least a half century, such activities have been advocated as providing students with experiences and opportunities for talent development which are not found in the traditional academic program. Their supporters argue that they constitute, in fact, a "third curriculum" supplementing the general and specialized curriculum offerings.

The Board of Education has a standing committee on student activities responsible for reviewing proposals and making recommendations on all policy matters affecting: pupil organizations, athletics, National Defense Cadet Corps, other supplementary school activities, and scholarships to high school graduates. The committee responds to requests made and has seldom initiated broad policy affecting the extra-curricular or student activities program.

The Board of Education and the central administrative officers support in principle a well-rounded program of activities but they are involved in policy making or in planning for such activities; with the exception of interscholastic athletics the extra-curricular activities are primarily building level programs. There are no systematic procedures assessing the needs or the accomplishments of schools or students in the extra-curricular area. With the exception of $65,000 of District funds for the interscholastic athletic program, support for all other extra-curricular activities must come from local school sources.

The 1966 Teachers Salaries Act authorized additional compensation for classroom teachers sponsoring or coaching extra-curricular activities, approved by the Board and requiring time beyond the standard teaching load. Sponsors and coaches are now paid between $300 and $750 for each activity. In addition, a maximum of 150 points is allowed in determining the principal's work load for his salary placement.

Most principals with whom the task force members talked reported that they assumed direct responsibility for the organization and operation of the extra-curricular program in their schools. Faculty sponsors of extra-curricular activities confirmed this.

Why principals maintain direct responsibility for extra-curricular programs is not clear, although it may be due to inadequate staffing. Yet it appeared to be the case even when there is an assistant principal whose job description includes a reference to responsibility for direction of extra-curricular activity programs.

In general, the organization and administration of such programs are loose and informal. Channels for the introduction of new activities are not clear and programs in operation tend to be traditional. Whether the principal maintains direct responsibility or delegates it to an assistant, the results appear to be the same: the extra-curricular program receives no more than peripheral administrative attention. Even when principals and faculty members emphasize strong support for extra-curricular activities, they tend to be "extra." Almost without exception, the only aspect in which there were regular procedures was that of financial accounting. Few other aspects seems to have

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1/ Dr. Harry L. Brown prepared the report on which the material in this chapter is based.

been dealt with systematically: program development and assessment, selection and appointment of faculty sponsors, assessment of individual student progress or planning for the financial resources or facilities needed to support the extra-curricular program.

Scheduling practices vary regarding appropriate times: local conditions such as the availability of facilities, staff and the total school schedule are prime determiners of the placement and availability of extra-curricular activities. In some schools, for example, music and physical education activities are scheduled before the regular school day begins. Except for student council meetings and student assemblies, no activities take place during the school day. Most of the activities take place after the close of the regular school day, a very few, in the evenings. Some schools have specific days of the week for club activities. The rationale for this appears to be the curbing of "over participation" by some students and involvement of more youngsters. The overwhelming view is that student activities are peripheral and must not infringe on the academic goals of the school.

About two-thirds of the junior high and 55 percent of senior high faculty members responding to a questionnaire indicated that they favor inclusion within the school day of a time for certain extra-curricular activities. These faculty members were generally positive about the potential contribution of extra-curricular activities toward student development and were bothered by the fact that so few students participated. Teachers and principals observed that the involvement of girls in after-school activities was hampered by the fears of parents and the students themselves about walking home at irregular hours in the late afternoon or early evening.

Student Participation in Extra-Curricular Activities. On a questionnaire administered to faculties of 11 senior high and 11 junior high schools, the respondents estimated that not more than half of the students in their schools participated in the extra-curricular program. Principals' estimates of student participation are slightly higher than those of the teachers. The questionnaire responses of approximately 2000 students suggest that the teachers estimates are probably more accurate than those of the principals. In any event, it is clear that large numbers of students are not involved either in school-sponsored extra-curricular activities nor in the programs of non-school agencies. In fact, it is quite likely that the same students who participate in school-based activities are also involved in non-school agencies activities. Except for athletics, it appears that girls dominate participation in all other kinds of extra-curricular activities.

Interviews with junior and senior high school students make it clear that they do not find extra-curricular programs equally attractive nor do they feel that most students are well served by the present offerings. Students agreed on the need for more extensive athletic programs, social activities and musical events. Although it is not part of the extra-curricular program they suggested the desirability of reducing emphasis on the Cadet Program and of making it voluntary rather than compulsory. Student leaders (usually the more academically-oriented) suggested activities which were related to acedemic areas such as subject-related clubs, school publications and student council. Less academically-oriented youngsters did not share these interests. Many were unable to identify any existing extra-curricular activities of interest to them.

The sponsors indicated few activities specifically designed for youths who were not academically-oriented. Fewer than ten percent of the faculty members indicated that the students in their activity came from the non-academically oriented group. In all probability, 50 percent or more of the students not involved in the extra-curricular activities come from this group.

Another factor which may impede student participation are the costs. Although the sponsors estimated that 80 percent of all activities have out-of-pocket costs of less than $5 some activities cost between $25 and $100. Studies completed elsewhere revealed that the "hidden costs" to students of attending school and participating in certain curricular and extra-curricular activities were far in excess of estimates made by school personnel. In recognition of the economic plight of many students, better data on the actual costs of participating in school activities are essential for developing school policy.

Sponsors of activities cite three factors which affect student motivation and participation: the intrinsic value of the activity, peer approval and a system of rewards. Apparently, teachers and parents have little influence on the student's decision to participate in extra-curricular activities.

Faculty Sponsorship of Activities. Faculty members become activity sponsors in one of three ways: (1) they volunteer; (2) they are asked to assume a sponsorship; or (3) they are assigned by the principal. As would be expected, those who volunteered are more likely to want to continue sponsorship than those who have been assigned.

Only 12 percent of the teachers sponsoring extra-curricular activities reported work-load adjustments. Those who qualify now receive extra pay at the end of a semester. Asked about their preferences for load reduction, remuneration or a combination of both, about a third of the teachers favored a reduction in teaching load and about the same, a combination of load reduction and extra remuneration. A number of comments indicate that the extra pay issue is far from resolved despite legislation. While not limited to pay for work in sports, the "Extra Pay Bill" is often referred to as the "coaches bill." Critics of the bill claim that many club sponsors are excluded and that the reporting procedures are cumbersome. A number of teachers and principals are convinced that the extra-curricular activities have been endangered by the extra pay principle and that the long-range result will be the destruction of such programs with the exception of athletics.

Most teachers felt that the present extra-curricular activities programs have sufficient scope variety to interest the student body, although a third indicated that the program was far too restricted. When asked to suggest areas in which more activities were needed, about three-fourths of the teachers suggested more social activities and special interest clubs. About half proposed supplementing the programs in the subject clubs, intramural athletics and drama activities.

When asked for a general assessment of the extra-curricular program, about two-thirds of the teachers rated the program as "outstandingly good" and only a fourth felt that the program was "weak and needs improvement." A scant three percent of the teachers rated the program "poor." A fourth of the teachers believed that students are generally "enthusiastic" about extra-curricular programs, about 45 percent felt that they were only "mildly enthusiastic" and another quarter felt that most students were either "apathetic or negatively inclined" toward such programs. When asked to rate the overall effectiveness of various categories of activities, in no instance did the majority of teachers rate activities in any one category as "highly effective."

While principals generally spoke with pride about extra-curricular activities and faculty commitment, they soon turned to problems encountered in operating extra-curricular programs. These included the lack of preparation of teachers, the attitudes of young teachers toward sponsoring co-curricular activities, the reluctance of older teachers to become sponsors, a high teacher turnover affecting program stability, lack of facilities for developing programs, the conflict with the Department of Athletics

related to the assignment of coaching responsibilities and the difficulty of achieving a viable extra-curricular program without infringing upon academic programs.

Financial Support for Extra-Curricular Programs. Funds for extra-curricular activities other than those earmarked for the interscholastic athletics and extra pay for sponsors are raised by individual schools. Faculty sponsors and students show considerable ingenuity and diligence in raising funds. The two major sources of income for activities are membership dues and special fund-raising projects. In a few instances, there are admissions fees paid and to a very limited extent, federal funds. Community donations generally are not a major source of funds in affluent neighborhoods where patrons and merchants support worthwhile projects. Apparently no efforts were being made to support extra-curricular activities from budgetary sources. In fact, there were instances reported of monies raised from extra-curricular projects being used to purchase books and other materials for regular programs.

At one time, the District allocation of $65,000 and gate receipts were sufficient to support the interscholastic program and even provide a surplus. Now, because of schedule curtailments and administrative decisions to maintain crowd control at athletic events, some funds must be added from the sale of athletic events tickets.

Additional funds are required for any kind of valid extra-curricular program in the District's schools. Given the economic conditions under which many students live, such additional funds should not be sought from private sources. To do so will seriously restrict participation of those students who have most need for the kind of extra-curricular activities which should be provided by the secondary schools.

Out-of-School Provisions. It was difficult to determine how many non-school agencies are providing activities and services for elementary or secondary school students in afternoon, weekend and summer programs. The task force observations are based on discussions with representatives of more than 20 agencies, examinations of agency reports, visits to some programs in action and faculty and student responses.

A number of agencies have developed programs that are reaching various segments of the youth population. Each of these agencies has its supporters and detractors. While not without their critics, the programs of such groups as the Police Boys Clubs, the Roving Leaders, the Recreation Department and churches and neighborhood groups were often singled out by adults as examples of groups that have effective programs. When cited as "effective," it was usually the quality of organizational leadership, the dedication and training of personnel, that were pointed to as key factors in success. Neighborhood and settlement houses and programs of law enforcement agencies have their staunch supporters although attitudes toward the effectiveness of their work appears to be more divided.

Non-school organizations experience many of the same difficulties encountered by the schools in operating extra-curricular activities. Insufficient funds, trained staffs and facilities together with inadequate community support are continuing problems of these agencies. Services are unequally distributed geographically and many neighborhoods with greatest need appear to be the least well served. While this can be expected, the unevenness of programs is probably compounded by the lack of any serious efforts to plan cooperatively. In fact, the task force encountered evidence of inter-agency competition in programs provided and for funding.

Non-school agencies also encounter difficulty developing programs attractive to the youth populations they seek to serve. Students' responses on questionnaires indicated that youngsters who are least involved and least well served by schools are the ones most likely to be untouched by agency programs. There are, of course, programs

that are especially mounted for youths alienated from the school but these programs touch only a very small segment of the population as would be expected. Interviews with youths confirmed the impression that they found somewhat greater acceptance into organized out-of-school programs that they did in the school extra-curricular programs. Like the schools, community agencies were short in provisions for girls and weekend programs.

Task force members observing programs of community agencies, were particularly impressed with the dedication and understanding and skill with which the programs were being carried forward. In some instances, out-of-school programs were far better handled and reaching more youngsters than complementary programs within the schools.

Some of the OEO supported agencies specifically designed to attract this unreached segment seemed promising. Summer programs combining work and social activity appeared to be reaching young adults.

A few programs are aimed at the school drop-out, combining worthwhile work projects with study programs that lead to high school equivalency diplomas. In one such program, the dropouts participated in the selection of their teacher. Many of the same instructional problems encountered in the school situation are apparently transplanted to the less formal out-of-school programs. In some programs visited by the task force, teaching approaches and content of instruction were not markedly different from those which the same students had objected to in school, and a loss of interest was clearly evident. However, the environment, the degree of flexibility and the informality of the situation were different.

School personnel seem generally uninformed about community agency programs and services available to young people. They tend to have little contact with key persons in agencies and centers serving youth, talking only in general terms about programs carried on in the non-school centers. In questionnaire responses, the majority of teachers rated certain programs, such as those of the Recreation Department and the Neighborhood Youth Centers as "successful." However, more than a fifth of the faculty members reported not knowing about the agency programs with the exception of the Recreation Department. This lack of information and articulation between school and non-school agencies worked both ways. The consequence is that both groups tend to be wary or aloof. True, some agency representatives spoke positively of cooperative relationships with the school but the majority felt that school personnel were unapproachable, suspicious of efforts of "outsiders" and lacking in concern for young people.

Inter-agency cooperation and coordination is seriously deficient. The result is a tendency toward "empire building" and a competition for federal and District funds. Ad hoc efforts to bring about community-wide or even area inter-agency planning and cooperation have not been successful. Most of the non-school agencies acknowledge that the United Planning Organization was to coordinate and support the efforts of youth serving agencies. However, some groups felt that the UPO had used its funds to initiate new programs in competition with established agencies and activities. Without arguing the merits or accuracy of these views, the need for liaison and coordination is clearly apparent.

Conclusions and Recommendations. No matter how valid the traditional objectives or expectation for extra-curricular activities were, they no longer provide a sufficient guide for program planning in the District today. Relationships between age groups are too seriously disrupted for traditional objectives and emphases to be adequate. Within the school system and in the broader community, there are serious divisions and suspicions which affect intergroup relations. Activity programs that have as one of

their central purposes, the bridging of gaps between groups and generations can contribute to long-range solutions of some District problems. Well-planned and implemented activity programs can become threat-free meeting grounds, provide learning opportunities that go far beyond the basic academic program.

While it is unrealistic to expect that activity programs will overcome all barriers between youth and adults, it is not impractical to expect that a small start could be made toward changing attitudes. The task force sees extra-curricular activities contributing to the development of youth in ways which seem to be stymied by more formal academic programs. However, as long as such programs are viewed as peripheral or "frosting," full advantage will not be taken of the potential contribution to the total educational program. It is in the areas of attitudes, interpersonal relationships, self-concepts and other non-intellectual factors that extra-curricular activities can make their greatest contribution. As programs are better developed and more relevant, the supportive nature of the extra-curricular activities for both intellectual and non-intellectual goals becomes more apparent.

It is recommended that the Board of Education develop a strong policy for an extra-curricular program which would make them an integral part of the District's total educational program. Co-curricular activities ought not be locked into the formality of the academic program but be viewed as part and parcel of the over-all learning opportunities provided children and youth in and out of school. The Board lacks data on current student activities and, like the central staff, seems uninformed about such programs except in cases of crises and problems. The District should undertake a thorough study of the potential of this aspect of the educational enterprise.

It is recommended that local orientation of activities be maintained but that it be given the direction and support required to build the kind of school-community programs which the District needs. At each junior and senior high school, an Office of Student Activities should be established, with the assistant principal or some other staff member designated for the development, coordination and facilitation of student activities within the school and for identifying and maintaining relationships with other youth-serving agencies. The school-community liaison officer should participate and work closely with this office. As school sub-systems are developed, councils involving personnel from various schools should be established to provide communication and articulation among schools and agencies seeing that opportunities exist for all students to participate in satisfying programs.

The present disorganized approach to extra-curricular programs does not serve the District well; individual activities are uneven in quality and purpose. There is no extra-curricular program, only a series of disjointed activities. Youth serving agencies, school and non-school, operate separate programs with little awareness of other efforts. The consequences are both duplications and gaps in services as well as competition for clientele and funds. Inter-agency coordination is essential. It is up to the schools to exercise leadership in establishing such inter-agency liaison. By improving planning coordination between schools and non-school agencies, not only should programs emerge but each can play a more significant role in directing young people to appropriate activities, and avoid duplications and inevitable weakening of successful programs.

It is recommended that students be given a central role in planning co-curricular activities. To enlarge opportunities for students to develop their leadership potential while designing programs that will be perceived by them as relevant and important, mechanisms must be provided for student participation in all aspects of program planning. Out-of-school programs have demonstrated that youths, even those who have dropped out

of school, are capable of making valuable planning contributions to programs with which they are concerned. Present student councils could be reorganized and provided a real grant of power to be involved realistically in the decision-making process. There is a need for students to achieve a new sense of belonging in relations to staff members and to the school as an institution. The need is equally great for young people to develop new and more satisfying relationships with members of the adult community at large. Involvement in planning and decision-making could help provide a basis for new relationships.

It is recommended that more systematic procedures be developed for staffing extra-curricular programs. In-service training should be provided for sponsors of extra-curricular activities to encourage interested persons to undertake sponsorship and to provide them with the skills they need for effective work with youth. The success of a student activity program depends to a large extent on the quality of the sponsors, their perception of the potential contribution of these activities to the educational program, and their personal commitment. On questionnaires, teachers often expressed the feeling that expectations were entirely inconsistent with any realistic assessment of what is possible. Extra-curricular activities require the expenditure of great staff efforts and these will not be entered into with enthusiasm until changes are made which make it possible for faculty members to look with more confidence upon themselves and their tasks. The professional staff should be augmented by paraprofessionals, including youths in and out of school, who, with training, can contribute personnel leadership.

Finally, the notion of what constitutes extra-curricular programs must be altered. For too many District personnel, it is only an after-school mathemetics club, a chess group or a football team. The variety of out-of-school programs initiated by the OEO-sponsored agencies and other community organizations have demonstrated that there are programs in which youths and young adults can take leadership, provide necessary and valuable services, realize a considerable sense of personal achievement and derive significant learnings simultaneously. Youths need opportunities to contribute to society and to their own dignity and self-esteem. The informality, the interpersonal relationships, the climate found in many such non-academic programs hold considerable promise for the total educational program. The District schools must reassess present extra-curricular programs and relationships with non-school agencies, and develop new policies and programs which capitalize on the educative potential which has not yet been exploited.

Appendix A

Personnel Who Participated in the Study of the Washington, D. C. Schools

The study was conducted by a number of task forces and a staff of research assistants in Washington, D. C. Unless otherwise indicated, the persons listed below are from Teachers College, Columbia University. Names preceded by (*) were Task Force Chairmen. Those names preceded by (**) were members of the Study Committee.

Task Force Chairmen, Specialists and Consultants

	Anderson, O. Roger	Associate Professor of Natural Sciences
	Anderson, William G.	Associate Professor of Education (Physical Education)
** *	Austin, David B.	Professor of Education (Educational Administration)
*	Barkan, Manuel	Professor of Education School of Art, the Ohio State University
	Behnke, Frances	Instructor in Science Education
	Bowers, Robert A.	Assistant Professor of Education (Special Education)
*	Bressler, Marvin	Professor of Sociology Princeton University
*	Brick, Michael	Associate Professor of Higher Education
*	Brown, Harry L.	Associate Professor of Education (Educational Administration)
*	Carey, George W.	Associate Professor of Geography
*	Connor, Frances P.	Chairman, Department of Special Education
*	D'Andrea, Frank	Chairman, Department of Music Education
	Edison, Michael	Project Director, Louis Harris and Associates
	Ellis, Wade	Professor of Mathematics, Oberlin College
*	Elsbree, Willard S.	Richard Marsh Hoe Professor Emeritus (Educational Administration)
** *	Fischer, John H.	President of Teachers College
** *	Foshay, Arthur W.	Associate Dean, Research and Field Services, Professor of Education
	Gavronsky, Serge	Assistant Professor of French, Barnard College
	Goldberg, I. Ignacy	Professor of Education (Special Education)
** *	Goldberg, Miriam L.	Professor of Psychology and Education
*	Goslin, David A.	Associate Sociologist, Russell Sage Foundation
*	Greene, Maxine	Professor of English
*	Grieco, D. Marie	Lecturer in Library Services, Columbia University
*	Hagen, Elizabeth P.	Professor of Psychology and Education
	Haller, Raphael M.	Assistant Professor of Speech Pathology
	Harder, Jayne	Visiting Associate Professor of English
*	Hare, Nathan	Assistant Professor of Sociology, Howard University
*	Hausman, Jerome J.	Professor of Education, School of Art, the Ohio State University

	Hopson, Anna Lee	Research Associate, the Bureau of Applied Social Research, Columbia University
	Huebner, Dwayne E.	Professor of Education (Curriculum and Teaching)
** *	Ianni, Francis A. J.	Chairman, Division of Educational Institutions and Programs, and Professor of Education
	Ivany, J. W.	Assistant Professor of Natural Sciences
	Jenson, Pauline M.	Instructor, Department of Special Education
	Johnson, Harry	Professor of Education, Virginia State College
*	Joyce, Bruce R.	Associate Professor of Education (Curriculum and Teaching)
*	Kelly, James A.	Assistant Professor of Education (Educational Administration)
*	Klineberg, Steven	Assistant Professor of Sociology, Princeton University
*	Knox, Alan B.	Professor of Education (Adult Education)
*	Kraus, Richard G.	Professor of Education (Health Education, Physical Elements and Recreation)
*	Lange, Phil	Professor of Education (Curriculum and Teaching)
*	La Rocque, Geraldine	Assistant Professor of English
	Lawler, Marcella	Professor of Education (Curriculum and Teaching)
	Lazarus, Phoebe	Instructor, Department of Special Education
*	Lewis, Arthur J.	Chairman, Department of Educational Administration
*	Lindsey, Margaret	Professor of Education (Curriculum and Teaching)
	McKillop, Anne	Professor of Psychology and Education
*	Mackenzie, Gordon N.	Professor of Education (Curriculum and Teaching)
*	Mahoney, William J.	Professor of Art and Education
*	Miel, Alice M.	Chairman, Department of Curriculum and Teaching
*	Morris, Charles N.	Professor of Education (Guidance Department)
	Mulholland, Ann M.	Lecturer, Department of Special Education
	Mysak, Edward D.	Professor of Speech Pathology
*	Nerden, Joseph T.	Professor of Education, Department of Industrial and Technical Education, North Carolina State University
	Nurss, Joanne	Assistant Professor of Education, Emory University
*	Oliverio, Mary Ellen	Professor of Economic Education
*	Otto, Arlene C.	Chairman, Department of Home and Family Life
** *	Passow, A. Harry	Professor of Education, Chairman, Committee on Urban Education, Study Director
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Appendix B

I. The Study of the District Teachers[a/]

The Bureau of Applied Social Research of Columbia (BASR) was asked to survey teachers' attitudes and perceptions as a part of the overall study of Washington Schools. As a first step in the survey, all public schools were closed early on January 16, 1967. The pupils were dismissed and all of the teachers in all of the schools were asked to fill out the questionnaire. Study representatives were stationed in 46 "sample" schools to collect the questionnaires, sealed in envelopes, and return them to a central point on the same afternoon. The questionnaires were taken to New York for editing, coding and keypunching. The questionnaires from the remaining "non-sample" schools were also sealed in envelopes and either dropped into the school mail or mailed directly to the Study within 24 hours. A separate parallel questionnaire was administered simultaneously to school officers -- principals, supervisors, directors, pupil personnel workers, etc.

Selection of Sample Schools. The total number of District teachers far exceeded the number needed for analysis. A sample of 600 teachers per school level was selected in advance of January 16. A sample of 46 schools was chosen and only the responses of the teachers in those were analyzed in this study.

A 20% sample of the larger elementary schools (those with fewer than 10 teachers were excluded) and a 40% sample of the junior high schools were drawn. All but one of the senior high schools was included in the sample: Cardozo was excluded because of the experiments with teacher personnel taking place there during the current academic year. The elementary schools were stratified on the basis of the median income of the neighborhood in which the school was located.* A 20% sample was chosen in each $1000 income stratum. The final sample of schools and of teachers is shown.

Table B -1 suggests that a few teachers filled out more than one questionnaire but this is not the case. On the contrary, the Bureau representatives were informed that a few people failed to fill out the questionnaire -- were absent from school, had a dentist appointment, attended a funeral, etc. The discrepancy of excess questionnaires can be explained by the fact that new teachers were added to the system between the time of the head-count on October 22nd and the survey. Because the three school levels are not proportionally represented, they are kept separate throughout the analysis. Statements are made about each of the three levels separately rather than about the school system as a whole.

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a/ Dr. Anna Lee Hopson and Dr. David Wilder of the Bureau of Applied Social Research of Columbia University conducted the study from which this material is drawn.

* "A Task Force Study of the Public School System in the District of Columbia As It Relates to the War on Poverty," printed for the use of the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives, June 1966, pp. 15-17.

Table B-1

Sample of Schools and Teachers in BASR Survey

	Total No. Schools	Total No. Teachers[a/]	No. Sample Schools	No. Tchrs. Reported in Schools[b/]	No. Tchrs. in Sample[c/]
Elementary	146[c/]	3360	25	736	741
Junior High	27	1498	11	646	644
Senior High	11	872	10	792	821
Totals	184	5730	46	2174	2206

Content of the Questionnaire

The teachers were asked for the following information about themselves as individuals:

- basic demographic data (age, sex, race, marital status, birthplace, place of residence, etc.),
- ascribed and achieved socio-economic status,
- placed in the Washington school system (licensing status, track mainly taught, school taught in),
- organizational memberships,
- certain personality characteristics (authoritarianism and assurance),
- predispositions toward certain social groups, and
- occupational goals and satisfactions.

In addition, teachers were asked to express their opinions on such current issues as:

- the tracking system as it operates in the District of Columbia (criteria for assignment to tracks, extent of misplacement of students, overall effectiveness of system, etc.),
- the purposes of elementary and secondary school education, and
- the educability of the mentally retarded and other disadvantaged youngsters.

---

a/ "Number of Regular Full-time Educational Employees on October 20, 1966 by Type of Position, School Level, Race and Sex," prepared by Department of General Research, Budget, and Legislation, Office of the Statistical Analyst, December 21, 1966.
b/ Includes all buildings, schools and annexes.
c/ Includes teachers added after October 1966.

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c/ Includes teachers added after October 1966.

Finally, the questionnaire elicited the teachers' opinions about and attitudes toward some of the specific aspects of the particular school in which they teach, including:

- intra-faculty relations within the school,
- relations with the school principal,
- educational facilities in the school,
- the curriculum provided for the able and for the culturally deprived,
- the philosophy of the administration,
- factors which interfere with teaching and learning in the classroom,
- pupils liking school and performance in school, and
- an overall comparison of the particular school with other schools in the United States.

The care in the selection of the sample suggests that it is representative of the school system as a whole. Consequently, the data are reported as representing "the Washington teachers" and that phrase is used throughout.

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Race and Sex. The "typical" teacher in the Washington School System -- both on the elementary and on the secondary school levels -- is a Negro woman. The proportion of Negroes and of women is considerably higher among elementary than among secondary teachers.

Table B-2

Race and Sex of Washington Teachers, by School Level

	Elementary N = 656 a/ %	Junior High N = 563 a/ %	Senior High N = 727 a/ %
Negro			
Female	73	51	35
Male	8	25	20
White			
Female	18	16	28
Male	1	8	17

a/ Slightly more than 10% of the respondents failed to give either their race or their sex on the questionnaire. The "No Answer's" are excluded from the bases of the percentages. Also excluded are the few teachers (less than 1%) who gave their race as "Other."

As the above table indicates, women outnumber men almost ten to one on the elementary level, two to one on the junior high level, and three to two in the senior high schools. The proportion of Negroes is 81% on the elementary level, 76% on the junior, and 55% on the senior high school level.

District teachers differ from the teacher population of the United States in general with respect to race and sex. The great majority of teachers in the United States are of the same race as the great majority of the people in the nation -- white. In Washington, Negroes constitute a majority among the teachers as well as among the residents in the nation's capital. The racial imbalance is less marked on the secondary school level (where a third of the teachers are white) than on the primary school level.

Table B-3

Washington Teachers and Teachers in the United States (1965)[a/]
by Race and Sex

	Elementary		Secondary	
	D. C. N = 656 %	National N = 1,008,095 %	D. C. N = 1290 %	National N = 522,286 %
Negro				
Female	73	8	42	4
Male	8	1	22	3
White				
Female	18	78	23	43
Male	1	13	13	49

a/ For statistics on the national teacher population, see Seymour Warkov's "A Study of Professional and Technical Careers in the Middle Years." All percentages are based on the total population. They do not add to one hundred because of the exclusion of teachers other than whites or Negroes, e.g., Orientals.

Washington teachers are more likely than are the teachers throughout the country to be women. In the rest of the United States as well as in Washington, five out of six elementary school teachers are women. On the secondary school level, a slight majority of the teachers nation-wide are male; in Washington, however, nearly two-thirds of the secondary school teachers are women.

Age. The modal age for teachers at all three levels in the District falls between 26 and 30 years.[1/] A larger proportion, however, of teachers in the senior high schools than of those in the junior high and elementary schools are over the age of 45.

1/ The average age of elementary school teachers nation-wide is 40; of secondary school teachers, 37. James S. Coleman et al., Equality of Educational Opportunity, Office of Education, 1966, pp. 126 f.

Table B-4

Age of Teachers, by Level

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High N = 644 %	Senior High N = 821 %
25 and under	14	17	16
26 - 35	40	32	28
36 - 45	22	26	21
46 - 55	15	17	19
56 and over	7	5	13
No answer	2	3	3

The proportion of Negroes on the staff of the D. C. schools has risen steadily during the last 15 years. Negroes in the system are younger than the whites. At the junior and senior high school levels, a disproportionate number of the whites are quite young (under 25) as well as over 45. A larger proportion of Negroes than of whites are in the middle categories -- between the ages of 25 and 46. With the preponderance of Negroes in the system, the "typical" teacher at all three levels is a Negro between the age of 26 and 35.

Table B-5

Age of Teachers, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=524 %	White N=124 %	Negro N=419 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=398 %	White N=326 %
25 and under	15	12	16	25	12	22
26 - 35	44	26	36	24	34	22
36 - 45	24	12	29	16	28	14
46 - 55	13	27	16	23	19	20
56 and over	4	23	3	12	7	22

Within each level and each race, there is only one difference in age distribution between the sexes: on the senior high school level, the white men are slightly more likely than are the white women to be 35 or under and less likely to be over 45.

Table B-6

Ages of Whites in Senior High School, by Sex

	Male N = 120 %	Female N = 206 %
35 and under	50	41
36 - 45	15	13
46 and over	35	46

Geographic Origin. In the United States as a whole, according to Coleman, 42% of the elementary school teachers have spent most of their lives in the local area, and 34% have graduated from the local high school. Teachers in the secondary schools have been somewhat, but not a great deal, more geographically mobile in the course of their lives: 35% of the secondary school teachers have spent most of their lives in the local area, and 29% have graduated from the local high school.* (See Table B-7).

Table B-7

Where the Teachers Grew Up, by Level*

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High School N = 644 %	Senior High School N = 821 %
In Washington D. C.	35	36	23
Within 50 miles of Washington	4	6	4
More than 50 miles from Wash.			
in a Southern state	36	33	31
in a North Eastern state	18	16	19
in a North Central state	5	6	12
in a Western state	3	4	6
Outside the U. S.	1	1	4
No Answer	2	3	3

* Because of the multiple mentions, columns add to more than 100%

About two-fifths of the District's teachers are natives of the area; 27% of the senior high school teachers grew up in Washington or its suburbs. When the teachers who immigrated to the District from a Southern state are added to those who grew up there, it becomes clear that the teaching staff of the District of Columbia is essentially "Southern" in origin. Three-fourths of the elementary and junior high school teachers grew up either near Washington or in a Southern state; 58% of the senior high school teachers either came from the South or grew up in or near the District.

Coleman found a racial difference among the school teachers nationwide on both the elementary and secondary levels: the Negro teachers are more likely than are white teachers to have grown up in the area in which they are presently working. In the "metropolitan South,"1/ especially on the elementary level, the geographic stability of the Negroes relative to the whites is even more marked than it is in the rest of the country:

* Coleman, op. cit., pp. 122 f.

1/ Coleman lists the District of Columbia as a part of the "metropolitan Northeast." Because of the preponderance of Southerners among the teachers, it seems reasonable here to compare it with the "metropolitan South."

Table B-8

Percent of Teachers who Lived Most of Their Lives And Were Educated in the Local Area [a]

	Total U. S.				Metropolitan South			
	Elementary		Secondary		Elementary		Secondary	
	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White
Teachers who spent most of their lives in the local area	53	40	41	34	69	37	52	41
Teachers who graduated from the local high schools	45	33	35	28	61	27	47	32

a/ Coleman, op. cit., p. 123.

Approximately the same proportion of white teachers grew up in Washington as graduated (according to Coleman) from the local high school in the "metropolitan South." A larger proportion of Negro school teachers, however, have immigrated to Washington than have immigrated to Coleman's "metropolitan South."

Table B-9

Where The Teachers Grew Up, by Race and Level*

	Elementary		Junior High School		Senior High School	
	Negro N=572 %	White N=126 %	Negro N=460 %	White N=133 %	Negro N=420 %	White N=327 %
In Washington, D. C.	36	31	39	29	29	18
Within 50 miles of Washington	4	3	4	11	4	6
More than 50 miles from Washington						
in a Southern state	40	16	38	14	44	16
in a North Eastern state	16	28	13	24	15	28
in a North Central state	3	13	4	16	7	20
in a Western state	2	10	3	9	3	10
Outside the United States	*	4	*	3	2	7
No answer	2	1	2	-	1	1

* Because of multiple mentions, columns add to more than 100%.

The great majority of the Negro teachers in the District of Columbia are from Washington or a Southern state. The majority of the white teachers, by contrast, come from other parts of the United States.

Place of Residence. Three of every four elementary and junior high school teachers and two of every three senior high school teachers in the sample live in the District. More senior high teachers than elementary or junior high teachers commute to work.

Table B-10

Teachers' Place of Residence by Level

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High N = 644 %	Senior High N = 821 %
Washington, D. C.	76	75	66
Virginia and Maryland	18	17	26
No answer	6	8	8

At each level, 90% of the Negro teachers and only half of the white teachers report that they live within the city of Washington. Most of the commuters live in Maryland, and a few live in Virginia.

Table B-11

Teachers' Place of Residence, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=539 %	White N=128 %	Negro N=436 %	White N=132 %	Negro N=400 %	White N=322 %
Washington, D. C.	90	46	91	53	90	49
Virginia and Maryland	10	54	9	47	10	51

On the elementary school level there is no difference in residential pattern between the two sexes. In the junior and senior high schools, there is a tendency for the women teachers to live in the city somewhat more often than do the men.

Personal Characteristics of the Teacher Sample

Although some District teachers came from the "culture of poverty," the majority claim to have come from families which may be described as "middle class." Education of father and of mother, occupation of father, and income of parents are the four indicators of ascribed socio-economic status used here. The fathers and the mothers of about one-tenth of the 2200 teachers did not finish elementary school. On the other hand, the fathers of almost two-thirds, and the mothers of slightly more than one-third of the teachers finished high school. One-fifth of the teachers' fathers and one-sixth of their mothers finished college.

About one-fifth of the teachers' fathers were unskilled or semi-skilled workers. A larger proportion of the teachers (29% in elementary school, 43% in senior high school) reports that their father's principal occupation was that of either a businessman or a professional.

About one out of seven of the teachers reports the income of their families to have been in the lowest 25% in their community at the time of their graduation from high school; the same proportion reports their family income to have been in the highest 25% in their community. Slightly over 70% of the teachers report their family income to have been in the middle range.

The four indicators of SES of teachers' families of orientation were combined to form a single index. There is only a slight positive relationship between ascribed status and level of school of present employment for teachers in the D. C. system. Teachers at the higher levels in the school system tend to be those who had the more favorable starting point.

Table B-12

Index of Ascribed Status by School Level

	Elementary N = 709 %	Junior High N = 610 %	Senior High N = 763 %
Ascribed Status			
High	13	19	23
Moderately High	24	27	28
Moderately Low	40	34	30
Low	23	20	19

Within every level, a larger proportion of the white than of the Negro teachers comes from a high socio-economic status (SES). (See Table B-13.) However, the racial difference in ascribed SES is likely to give a misleading impression of the system as a whole. The preponderance of Negro teachers in the D. C. schools is so great that, at all school levels, the "typical" teacher is a Negro of low ascribed SES. There are few whites of low SES at any level in the system. Women teachers in general, come from "better" families than do the men.

The "typical" teacher--in the present context--in the elementary and junior high schools is a woman whose ascribed socio-economic status is low; in the senior high schools, a woman whose ascribed socio-economic status is high.

Table B-13

Index of Ascribed Status, by Race and Level

Ascribed Status (dichotomized)	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=578 %	White N=131 %	Negro N=474 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=431 %	White N=332 %
High	34	52	41	60	42	63
Low	66	48	59	40	58	37

Table B-14

Index of Ascribed Status by Sex and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Male N=62* %	Female N=622 %	Male N=192 %	Female N=394 %	Male N=285 %	Female N=470 %
High SES	19	39	39	48	40	58
Low SES	81	61	61	52	60	42

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Licensing Status of Teachers. Permanent status is the exception rather than the rule in the District. About one-third of the elementary and junior high teachers will soon have tenure. Half of the senior high teachers are temporary.

Table B-15

Licensing Status of Teachers, by Level

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High N = 644 %	Senior High N = 821 %
Permanent	37	42	35
Probationary	29	36	14
Temporary	32	21	49
No Answer	2	1	2

The salary range of "temporary" teachers (regardless of the number of years of teaching experience) is appreciably lower than is that of teachers who have tenure. By and large, at each of the three school levels the age of the temporary teachers is also lower than is the age of the permanent teachers. Even at the elementary school level, where a relatively high proportion of the permanent teachers (one third) are young (35 and under), twice as many of the temporary teachers are 35 or under. The relationship between age and licensing status is even more marked in the secondary schools than in the elementary schools.

Table B-16

Age of Teachers, by Licensing Status and Level

	Elementary			Junior High			Senior High		
	Perm. N=271 %	Prob. N=212 %	Temp. N=230 %	Perm. N=260 %	Prob. N=226 %	Temp. N=133 %	Perm. N=276 %	Prob. N=113 %	Temp. N=392 %
25 and under	2	18	24	1	21	43	*	8	29
26 - 35	30	55	42	20	45	39	7	37	42
36 - 45	31	20	13	27	24	7	25	29	18
46 - 55	25	6	13	32	8	8	36	20	7
56 and over	12	1	8	10	2	3	31	5	4

A "profile" of the Washington school teacher by age and by licensing status indicates that a student in senior high school is most likely to be taught by a temporary teacher who is under the age of 36.

The race of the teachers is related to their licensing status at the elementary and junior high school levels but not at the senior high school level: at the lower levels, proportionally more whites than Negroes are temporary teachers; and proportionally more Negroes than whites are probationary teachers. The racial discrepancy is consistent with the shift in racial composition; the proportion of Negro teachers with tenure is increasing as the overall proportion of Negroes increases. There is no difference between men and women in the proportions who have permanent, probationary and temporary licensing status.

Table B-17

Licensing Status, by Level and Race

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=571 %	White N=129 %	Negro N=470 %	White N=133 %	Negro N=426 %	White N=326 %
Licensing Status						
Permanent	37	43	42	39	35	36
Probationary	33	15	40	26	16	14
Temporary	30	42	18	35	49	50

Track Mainly Taught. Teachers were asked: Which "track" or "tracks" do you teach? The typical elementary teacher says that all of her students are in the same track. Junior high school teachers say that they have students in an average of 1.8 tracks. On the senior high school level, the teachers say that they have, on the average, students in more than two different tracks.

Table B-18

Track or Tracks Which Are Taught, by Level

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High N = 645 %	Senior High N = 821 %
Special Academic	10	38	32
General	30	34	73
Regular	54	79	76
Honors	7	31	42
No answer	14	10	12

In response to the question -- "Which track are most of your students in?" -- a large number (165) of the teachers either refused to answer (skipped the question) or refused to commit themselves to a single track. (See Table B-19.) The responses are odd in one respect; although there are only supposed to be three tracks up to the high school level, the teachers all all levels report themselves as teaching all four tracks.

Table B-19

Tracks Teachers Say Most of Their Students Are In, by Level

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High N = 644 %	Senior High N = 821 %
Special academic	8	10	2
General	25	13	45
Regular	47	61	34
Honors	3	4	2
No answer	17	12	17

There is probably a minimum of confusion with respect to the two extreme tracks -- the Honors and the Special Academic. The confusion exists between the two middle tracks -- the Regular and the General. There is no formal, official distinction between the General and the Regular track below the senior high school level. Possibly, pupils who are thought to be relatively bright are thus thought of as being in a Regular track. To the extent that ability grouping operates on the elementary and junior high school levels within the broad range of the IQ spectrum between 75 and 130, the presumably brighter pupils are informally lumped together. Their teachers thus have a factual basis for distinguishing between them and the youngsters with a lower IQ. The general sentiment that teaching more able students is somehow "superior" to teaching the less able would thus tend to reinforce rather than to create distinctions within the single "middle" track.

At all three school levels, the white teachers are much more likely than are the Negro teachers to be teaching the children who have relatively high ability. There is a tendency for the Negro teachers to be assigned to the lower tracks and for the white teachers to be assigned to the higher tracks.

Table B-20

Tracks Most Students In, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=488 %	White N=108 %	Negro N=413 %	White N=123 %	Negro N=345 %	White N=289 %
Special academic	10	4	13	8	2	2
General	30	27	14	15	63	42
Regular	58	54	72	62	33	52
Honors	2	15	1	15	1	4

Teachers with tenure are also more likely than are the temporary teachers to have the brighter pupils. At each of the three school levels, a larger proportion of permanent teachers than of probationary or temporary teachers have classes primarily with youngsters in the Regular and in the Honors tracks.

Table B-21

Track Most Students In, by Licensing Status and Level

	Elementary			Junior High			Senior High		
	Perm. N=232 %	Prob. N=181 %	Temp. N=198 %	Perm. N=232 %	Prob. N=205 %	Temp. N=125 %	Perm. N=235 %	Prob. N=101 %	Temp. N=335 %
Special Academic	6	10	13	10	13	13	2	2	3
General	26	30	33	12	14	21	44	56	60
Regular	62	58	49	70	71	65	49	40	35
Honors	6	2	5	8	2	1	5	2	2

White teachers and teachers with tenure are more likely than Negro teachers and temporary teachers to have relatively bright youngsters. When both race and licensing status are held constant, a tendency is discernible for the white permanent teachers to be assigned to the higher tracks and for the Negro temporary teachers to be assigned to the lower tracks. (See Table B-21.) When Table B-21 is condensed (two higher tracks together) race does not seem to be a factor in track assignment either among temporary teachers at the elementary level or among probationary and temporary teachers at the junior high school level.

Table B-22

Track Most Students In, by Licensing Status and Race and Level

	Negro			White		
	Perm. N=183 %	Prob. N=156 %	Temp. N=145 %	Perm. N=43* %	Prob. N=19* %	Temp. N=44* %
Elementary						
Special Academic	7	10	14	2	19	9
General	29	31	30	16	21	41
Regular	62	58	53	61	74	36
Honors	2	1	3	21	5	14
Junior High	N=171	N=164	N=75*	N=47*	N=32*	N=42*
Special Academic	13	13	11	2	9	14
General	12	12	25	6	25	17
Regular	74	73	64	58	63	67
Honors	1	2	-	34	3	2
Senior High	N=121	N=57*	N=165	N=96*	N=43*	N=144
Special Academic	2	4	3	1	-	3
General	52	68	69	34	42	49
Regular	42	28	28	61	53	44
Honors	4	-	-	4	5	4

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table B-23

Percent with Most Students in the Two Higher Tracks, by Licensing, Status and Race

	Permanent	Probationary	Temporary
Elementary			
Negro	64 (N=183)	59 (N=156)	56 (N=145)
White	82 (N=43)	79 (N=19)	50 (N=44)
Junior High			
Negro	75 (N=171	75 (N=164)	64 (N=75
White	92 (N=47)	66 (N=32)	69 (N=42)
Senior High			
Negro	46 (N=121	28 (N=57)	28 (N=165)
White	65 (N=96)	58 (N=43)	48 (N=144)

Formal Education of Washington School Teachers. The following table represents the proportion of teachers within each academic level who have received a master's, only a bachelor's, or no degree at all. Since only one teacher indicated a doctoral degree, this teacher was combined with the master's degree. Half the teachers in the senior high schools, one fourth in the junior high schools and 15% in the elementary schools have a master's degree. Approximately one out of every 10 teachers in all three levels has no degree. The remainder have a bachelor's degree.

Table B-24

Highest Degree Earned, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=578 %	White N=131 %	Negro N=474 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=431 %	White N=332 %
Master's degree	13	22	22	35	51	58
Bachelor's degree	81	58	67	59	43	37
No degree	6	20	11	6	6	5

On every level the white teachers are more likely than the Negro teachers to have earned a master's degree. The largest racial differences among the teachers who have not received any degree is in the elementary schools, where 20% of the whites and 6% of the Negro teachers have not received a degree.

There is no significant difference at any school level between male and female teachers in the highest academic degrees held. (See Table B-25.)

Table B-25

Highest Degree Earned, by Sex and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Male N=62* %	Female N=622 %	Male N=192 %	Female N=394 %	Male N=286 %	Female N=470 %
Master's degree	16	15	26	25	52	54
Bachelor's degree	82	76	64	67	38	41
No degree	2	9	10	8	10	5

The two tracks taught by over 85% of the teaching staff -- the General and the Regular tracks -- show little or no relationship between the highest degree earned and the track the teacher primarily teaches. (See Table B-26.) Teachers of the Special Academic track exhibit very much the same distribution of degrees earned as do the majority of the teachers. The Honors teachers, however, are more likely to have a master's degree.

Table B-26

Highest Degree Earned, by Track and Level

	Special Academic N=57* %	Elementary General N=183 %	Regular N=351 %	Honors N=26* %
Master's degree	14	11	13	23
Bachelor's degree	81	76	78	62
No degree	5	13	9	15
		Junior High		
	N=66* %	N=82* %	N=393 %	N=25* %
Master's degree	17	20	20	56
Bachelor's degree	70	68	68	36
No degree	13	12	12	8
		Senior High		
	N=16* %	N=366 %	N=272 %	N=20* %
Master's degree	44	47	58	65
Bachelor's degree	31	44	34	25
No degree	25	9	8	10

* Percentages are based on N's of less than 100.

As one would expect, the temporary teachers are the most likely to have no degree and the least likely to have a master's. The permanent teachers are the most likely to have earned the higher degrees. The most striking difference in degree distribution between licensing status groups within a level occurs in senior high school: inasmuch as possession of a master's degree was formally a prerequisite to tenure at the time of the study, it is not surprising that the teachers whose status was permanent or probationary were more likely than those with temporary status to have a master's degree.

Table B-27

Highest Degree Earned, by Licensing Status and Level

	Elementary			Junior High			Senior High		
	Perm. N=276 %	Prob. N=218 %	Temp. N=236 %	Perm. N=267 %	Prob. N=233 %	Temp. N=137 %	Perm. N=291 %	Prob. N=113 %	Temp. N=404 %
Master's degree	25	10	5	37	20	10	91	76	16
Bachelor's degree	70	84	77	55	68	76	4	18	70
No degree	5	6	18	8	12	14	5	6	14

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Three comments about the education of the Washington school teachers are relevant. First, for the most part, teachers are much better educated than are the parents of the children whom they are teaching. In only four of the 25 elementary schools has the typical parent completed high school. In five of the 25 schools, the typical parent has not finished ninth grade; in the other 16 schools the parents left school in the middle of tenth or eleventh grades. In the second place, a majority of the college-educated teachers are Negroes like the students themselves. Association with Negroes who have graduated from college could help plant the notion in the minds of some of the students that they may "strive and succeed." The Negro teacher may be one of the few role models for middle-class behavior in the life of some of the ghetto children. Finally, the data suggest that no special efforts have been made to see that the disadvantaged children have the teachers who have the most (if not the best) training.

Income from Teaching. The median income earned by teachers at all three levels in the Washington school system is between $7000 and $8000 a year.

Table B-28

Income From Teaching, by Level

	Elementary N = 741 %	Junior High N = 644 %	Senior High N = 821 %
Under $6000	16	15	16
$6000 - $6999	25	31	27
$7000 - $7999	26	18	17
$8000 - $8999	14	13	8
$9000 - $9999	7	7	9
Over $10,000	9	13	20
No answer	3	3	3

The most striking difference in income between elementary, junior and senior high school teachers occurs at the highest income level. Twenty percent of the senior high school teachers report earning over $10,000, in comparison with thirteen percent of the junior high and nine percent of the elementary teachers. There are no differences in income from teaching between males and females. The two sexes are distributed in virtually identical proportions throughout the income range. The only significant difference in the distribution of Negro and white teachers among the several income categories occurs at the elementary level, where more whites than Negroes earn over $8000.

Table B-29

Income From Teaching, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=561 %	White N=129 %	Negro N=465 %	White N=135 %	Negro N=429 %	White N=330 %
Under $7000	43	38	46	53	42	46
$7000 - $7999	28	21	20	13	19	15
Over $8000	29	41	34	34	39	39

In terms of salary, the teachers in Washington are just as firmly "middle class" as are any of the teachers in the United States.

Teaching Income by Track. An analysis of income in relation to "track primarily taught" reveals a close relationship between these two factors on each school level. The teachers of the lower tracks are more likely to earn less than are teachers of the higher tracks, and vice versa. No effort has been made to give additional financial incentives to the people who are teaching students in the "slow" tracks.

Table B-30

Income From Teaching, by Track and Level

	Special Academic	General	Regular	Honors
	Elementary			
	N = 53*	N = 176	N = 343	N = 26*
	%	%	%	%
Under $7000	58	46	40	31
$7000 - 7999	21	27	31	27
Over $8000	21	27	29	42
	Junior High			
	N = 63*	N = 82*	N = 381	N = 25*
	%	%	%	%
Under $7000	56	58	50	20
$7000 - $7999	24	17	19	8
Over $8000	20	25	31	72
	Senior High			
	N = 14*	N = 361	N = 270	N = 17*
	%	%	%	%
Under $7000	43	50	39	30
$7000 - $7999	29	16	17	17
Over $8000	28	34	44	53

* Percentages are based on N's of less than 100.

Income by Licensing Status. Naturally, the permanent teachers are likely to earn more than the probationary, who in turn earn more than the temporary teachers. In the elementary schools, for example, 10% of the permanent, 45% of the probationary, and 80% of the temporary teachers earn less than $7000. At the other end of the income range, no temporary teacher earns over $10,000, whereas one quarter of the permanent teachers do.

Income differences are reported by teachers of the same licensing status at different school levels. Junior high temporary teachers, for example, tend to earn less than do elementary temporary teachers. Both permanent and probationary teachers earn much higher salaries in senior than in junior high schools. The differences are striking in both cases: two-thirds of the junior probationary teachers and only one third of the senior probationary teachers earn less than $7000. Nearly 60% of the senior high permanent teachers and only 30% of the junior high permanent teachers earn more than $10,000. There are large income differences between the teachers of different licensing statuses teaching in the same school level, as well as differences between the levels for each licensing status.

Table B-31

Income From Teaching, by Licensing Status and Level

	Permanent	Elementary Probationary	Temporary
	N = 269	N = 211	N = 228
	%	%	%
Under $7000	10	45	79
$7000 - $7999	26	37	21
Over $8000	64	18	-
		Junior High	
	N = 261	N = 228	N = 133
	%	%	%
Under $7000	11	63	92
$7000 - $7999	22	22	6
Over $8000	67	15	2
		Senior High	
	N = 281	N = 112	N = 391
	%	%	%
Under $7000	1	31	79
$7000 - $7999	7	37	19
Over $8000	92	32	2

Teaching Income and Total Family Income. At every school level more men than women teachers are the major breadwinners in their families. The small difference, however, between the proportions of each sex who are the sole supporters of their families indicates that among Washington teachers, the role of breadwinner is not completely determined by sex.

Approximately three-fifths of the teachers of each sex have other family members contributing to their total family income. Twice as many teachers report family incomes exceeding their own by at least $3000 as indicate the extra income is less than $3000. The teachers in Washington, by and large, are accustomed to thinking in terms of a two-income family.

Table B-32

Teaching Income and Total Family Income, by Sex and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
	N=62*	N=622	N=193	N=393	N=285	N=472
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Personal income exceeds family income	2	3	1	1	1	1
Personal and family income the same	36	21	25	20	36	26
Family income exceeds personal	59	69	69	64	61	67
by less than $3000	19	23	24	19	28	13
by more than $3000	40	46	45	55	33	54
No answer	3	7	5	5	2	6

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Marital Status. The majority of teachers on every school level are married; only a few are separated, divorced or widowed. The men and women teaching in the secondary schools are equally likely to be married; in the elementary schools, however, more of the men than of the women are single.

Table B-33

Marital Status by Sex and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Male N=62 %	Female N=579 %	Male N=182 %	Female N=373 %	Male N=277 %	Female N=458 %
Married	58	70	68	69	68	63
Single	36	18	25	22	26	30
Separated, divorced or widowed	6	12	7	9	6	7

Although Negro teachers in the secondary schools are somewhat more likely than white teachers to be married, there is no strong relationship between race and marital status.

Table B-34

Marital Status by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=550 %	White N=117 %	Negro N=451 %	White N=130 %	Negro N=417 %	White N=322 %
Married	70	68	72	61	70	60
Single	19	23	18	35	22	36
Separated, divorced or widowed	11	9	10	4	8	4

On every school level, the permanent teachers are the most likely to be married; the temporary teachers are the most likely to be single. Teachers' marital status does not vary in relation to track taught

Table B-35

Marital Status by Licensing Status and Level

	Elementary			Junior High			Senior High		
	Perm. N=254 %	Prob. N=209 %	Temp. N=220 %	Perm. N=246 %	Prob. N=218 %	Temp. N=131 %	Perm. N=268 %	Prob. N=111 %	Temp. N=374 %
Married	72	69	65	77	69	55	70	71	60
Single	17	20	25	13	22	39	23	27	32
Separated, divorced or widowed	11	11	10	10	9	6	7	2	8

Occupational Goals and Satisfactions. Teachers were presented with the following question:

Listed below are some characteristics which occupations may have.
How important is each one to you?
How well does your current job satisfy you with respect to each characteristic?

*Opportunity to be original and creative
*Opportunity to be helpful to others or useful to society
*Relative independence in doing my work
*A chance to exercise leadership
*A nice community or area in which to live
*Social standing and prestige in my community
*A chance to earn enough money
*Pleasant people to work with
*Opportunity to work with people

Opportunity for getting ahead
The chance my job gives me to show what I can do
The extent to which I am kept informed of how well I am doing on the job
Security of the job
The appropriateness of my present assignment considering my training and interests

*Opportunity to work with ideas.

The teachers rated the importance to them of, and the satisfaction given to them by, each of the sixteen job attributes, on a three point scale. A similar question, which embodied the ten occupational characteristics which have been starred in the above list, was asked of a national sample of professional workers in 1965.* The Washington teachers were compared with each other and with teachers nationwide.

The values sought and found by teachers in Washington's elementary and in secondary schools as well as in the rest of the nation appear to form a hierarchy: at the top are values which are associated with cooperative interpersonal relations -- helpfulness and sociability ("other-directed"); at the bottom are the symbols of worldly success -- money, power and social standing ("status-oriented"); in between are values which are more directly task-related -- originality and creativeness, independence in working, and the opportunity to work with ideas ("inner-directed").

In the following table, the ten job attributes used in the national study are ranked according to the frequency with which they were chosen as "very important" by teachers in the elementary schools in Washington -- from most often to least often chosen as "very important."

The teachers in Washington, in the tradition of service, profess great interest in the desire to be helpful (to students) and friendly (with peers); considerable interest in the subject matter of their work; and little interest, relatively, in the worldly rewards which their job offers them. There is little difference between elementary and high school teachers in the rank order of their occupational value preferences.

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* Cf. Warkov, op. cit.

Table B-36

Occupational Goals, by Level*
D. C. Teachers And National Sample of Teachers
(Percent choosing each goal as "very important")

	Elementary		Secondary	
	D.C. teachers '67*	Natl.study (Warkov)'65	D.C. teachers '67*	Natl. study (Warkov)'65
Other-Directed				
Opportunity to be helpful	81%	95%	83%	94%
Pleasant co-workers	78	87	69	82
Opportunity to work with people	74	81	72	81
Inner-Directed				
Opportunity to be original and creative	73	76	72	69
Independence in doing work	72	67	76	65
Opportunity to work with ideas	71	71	74	67
Status-Oriented				
Nice community to live in	57	76	45	70
Chance to earn enough money	55	58	50	51
Chance to exercise leadership	40	55	49	59
Social standing and prestige	23	47	21	39

* Teachers in junior and senior high schools have been combined to make the figures comparable to Warkov's figures.

The D. C. teachers have roughly the same hierarchy of values as that held by U. S. teachers as a whole. Washington teachers, however, tend to place less emphasis on both humanitarianism and sociability, on the one hand, and on the traditional status symbols (community and social standing) on the other, than do teachers nationwide. They place at least as much emphasis on the impersonal "technical" aspects of their job as do other teachers in the country.

One indicant of job satisfaction is provided by the relationship between the "importance" which teachers attach to different job attributes and the degree to which they are personally satisfied with each of the attributes. It is assumed, for present purposes, that only attributes which a teacher considers "very important" contribute materially to his or her overall job satisfaction. The table below presents the proportion of teachers who are "very satisfied" with each of the occupational characteristics which he or she considers "very important."

Table B-37

Satisfaction with Different Aspects of Teaching, by Level
(Percent who are "very satisfied" with each attribute
which they find "very important")

	Elementary %	Junior High %	Senior High %
Opportunity to work with people	68	71	77
Opportunity to be helpful	64	62	69
Pleasant people to work with	57	58	67
Opportunity to be original and creative	51	47	53
Nice community to live in	49	48	58
Independence in doing work	48	56	73
Opportunity to work with ideas	47	52	54
Chance to exercise leadership	46	58	61
Social standing and prestige	44	41	53
Chance to earn enough money	26	24	31

From the table it is clear that one and only one of the ten job characteristics mentioned both in the national study and in the present study is a source of dissatisfaction to the great majority of teachers in the D. C. school system. More than two-thirds of the teachers who claim to be very concerned about the amount of money which the they are earning (about one-half of the teachers) claim to be dissatisfied with the level of their pay.

The job attributes which were not mentioned in Warkov's study but were mentioned in the present study suggest two other (probably not unrelated) principal foci of teacher dissatisfaction. About two-thirds of the teachers who consider (1) being informed of their progress in their work, and (2) the opportunity to get ahead as important characteristics of their job are dissatisfied with the extent to which they are kept informed of how well they are doing and with their opportunity for getting ahead (Table B-39).

Supervision and pay, in short, are two job attributes with which a substantial proportion of the teachers in Washington who feel intensely about the attribute are discontent.

Table B-38

Importance of Occupational Goals, by Level
(Percent choosing each goal as "very important")

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
Appropriateness of assignment	75	77	72
Security of the job	68	67	56
Chance to show what I can do	62	62	57
Extent I'm informed of how I'm doing	52	46	38
New happenings on the job	52	50	52
Opportunity for getting ahead	43	43	38

Table B-39

Satisfaction with Different Aspects of Teaching, by Level
(Percent who are "very satisfied" with each attribute which they find "very important")

	Elementary %	Junior High %	Senior High %
Appropriateness of assignment	56	58	60
Security of job	50	59	58
Chance to show what I can do	47	51	56
New happenings on the job	40	43	52
Extent I'm informe of how I'm doing	33	32	38
Opportunity for getting ahead	30	33	36

Occupational Goals and Satisfaction, by Race. The similarity in the importance attached to specific job attributes by Negroes and by whites is more striking than is the difference in the importance assigned by the members of the two races. Both Negro and white teachers on both the primary and secondary level find the service aspect of their job -- the "opportunity to be helpful" -- its most important characteristic. (See Table B-40.)

The main difference on the elementary level between the Negro and white teachers in the importance assigned to different job characteristics is related to the content of the work itself: the white elementary teachers are more concerned than are the Negro elementary teachers with the "appropriateness of the assignment to their training and interests," with the "opportunity to be original and creative," and with the "opportunity to work with ideas." At the high school level, more of the Negro teachers

Table B-40

Importance of Occupational Goals, by Race and Level
(Percent choosing each goal as "very important")

	Elementary		Secondary**	
	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %
*Opportunity to be helpful	80	88	83	84
*Pleasant co-workers	77	80	70	67
*Opportunity to work with people	73	78	73	70
Appropriateness of assignment	73	84	75	73
*Opportunity to be original and creative	70	82	70	73
*Independence in doing work	70	78	76	75
*Opportunity to work with ideas	69	80	72	76
Security of the job	69	64	67	51
Chance to show what I can do	61	67	59	59
*Chance to earn enough money	55	55	55	42
Extent I'm informed of how I'm doing	53	48	46	34
*Nice community to live in	51	53	48	39
New happenings on the job	47	70	48	55
Opportunity to get ahead	45	35	47	29
*Chance to exercise leadership	39	42	50	45
*Social standing and prestige	22	28	22	18

* The starred items are those which were used in Warkov's study, op. cit.
** Teachers in junior and senior high school have been combined.

than of the whites say that they attach importance to "the security of the job," "to the chance to earn enough money," and to the "opportunity to get ahead" -- that is, to the status aspects of the job.

At the elementary level, more of the white than of the Negro teachers say that they are satisfied with the aspects of the job which they consider important. The greater satisfaction of the whites than of the Negroes holds true, on the elementary level, for every one of the sixteen job attributes mentioned in the teacher questionnaire. There is little room for doubt that, by and large, the white elementary school teachers are more satisfied with their job than the Negro teachers are.

White secondary school teachers who consider salary and job security very import- and are more likely than are the Negro teachers to be "very satisfied" with their income and with the security of their position. Both whites and Negroes are dissatisfied (1) with the information they are given about their performance on the job, and (2) with the chance which they have to earn enough money. The Negroes are even more dissatisfied than are the whites with the financial rewards of their occupation.

Finally, by way of summary, an occupational characteristic may be defined as "critical" if a substantial number of teachers consider it "very important" but do not find it "very satisfying." The occupational goals which a third or more of the teachers

Table B-41

Satisfaction With Different Aspects of Teaching, by Race and Level
(Percent who are "very satisfied" with each attribute
which they find "very important")

	Elementary		Secondary**	
	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %
*Opportunity to work with people	66	75	73	77
*Opportunity to be helpful	60	80	64	69
*Pleasant co-workers	56	63	63	62
Appropriateness of Assignment	52	70	58	61
Security of the job	49	57	54	68
*Opportunity to be original and creative	48	62	50	52
*Independence in work	45	57	62	72
Chance to show what I can do	44	57	54	53
*Opportunity to work with ideas	43	62	53	53
*Nice community to live in	43	73	48	64
*Social standing and prestige	42	50	48	49
*Chance to exercise leadership	41	64	59	61
New happenings on the job	38	46	43	55
Extent I'm informed of how I'm doing	33	36	36	34
Opportunity to get ahead	26	49	35	33
*Chance to earn enough money	24	35	24	35

* The starred items are those which were used in Warkov's study, op. cit.
** Teachers in junior and senior high school have been combined.

Table B-42

Percent of Teachers Who Are Dissatisfied with a
Very Important Characteristic of Their Job,
by Level

	Elementary %	Junior High %	Senior High %
A chance to earn enough money	41	41	33
Relative independence in doing my work	38	33	21
The opportunity to work with ideas	38	36	34
The opportunity to be original and creative	36	38	33
Extent I'm informed of how I'm doing	35	31	24
Security of the job	34	28	24

find "critical" according to this definition are presented schematically in Table B-42. Three characteristics, all of which are "status-oriented" are more "critical" to Negroes than to whites.

Table B-43

Percent of Teachers Who Are Dissatisfied with a Very Important Characteristic of Their Job, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %
A chance to earn enough money	42	36	44	32	39	26
Security of the job	35	28	31	15	30	17
Opportunity for getting ahead	33	18	32	20	28	19

Personality Characteristics of Teachers

Assurance. The term "assurance" is defined here as confidence in one's self and in the probability that other people will do what is both "right" and expected -- an overall confidence in life. One extreme of assurance manifests itself as a kind of irrepressible Pollyannaism; its antonyms are personal cynicism, disillusionment and some of the facets of anomie. The items combined to form the Assurance Scale were from the Citizenship Study conducted by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan in 1965.1/

Table B-44

Items on the Assurance Scale, Parents Nationwide and D. C. Teachers*

	National Sample of Parents of High School Seniors SRC - 1965	Teachers in D. C. System		
	Unweighted N=1992	Elementary N=741	Junior High N=646	Senior High N=821
I have mostly good luck.	87.9	88.0	90.4	89.8
Most people would try to be fair.	81.7	74.8	79.7	80.7
Most of the time people try to be helpful.	68.9	76.0	74.3	76.3
Most people can be trusted.	67.1	61.0	70.5	74.5
I usually get to carry out things the way I expected.	63.0	75.9	81.3	83.1
I have usually felt pretty sure my life would work out the way I want it.	42.6	52.6	58.6	62.2

* All percentages are based on the number who answered each item, rather than on the total number of respondents. More than 94% of the respondents both in the Michigan and in the present study answered five of the six items. Fourteen percent of the parents in the Michigan study and 8% of the teachers in the present study refused to answer the item about having "more than my share of good luck."

1/ These items have been labeled as a measure of "personal cynicism" by M.Kent Jennings, et al.

The six items and the percentage of D. C. teachers and of a national sample of parents of high school seniors who endorsed each item are shown in Table B-44. On the assurance scale, which has a range of from 0 to 6, the average score for a national sample of parents was 4.11.[1/] Teachers in the Washington School System showed more assurance, on the average, than did parents nationwide: the average score for elementary school teachers was 4.28; for junior high school teachers, 4.55; for senior, 4.67. The teachers in the schools in the D. C. system were decidedly more optimistic than was a national parent sample.

In other studies, higher scores on the assurance scale have been found to be associated with higher socioeconomic status (SES). Since teachers in the D. C. system have achieved a higher SES (in terms of education, occupational prestige, and income) than have most people in the nation, it is not surprising that they should face life with higher expectations than do most parents in the United States.

Regardless of the criteria of class, Washington is a city which is stratified along caste lines -- the lines of racial caste. At each school level, the white teachers face life with more confidence than do the Negro teachers. Nonetheless, even the Negroes who are teaching in the elementary schools -- those with the lowest assurance -- have as much assurance as do the nation's (predominantly white) parents of high school seniors.

Table B-45

Mean Scores on the Assurance Scale,
by Level and by Race
(Range is from 0-6)

	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High
Negro	4.10	4.47	4.45
White	5.14	4.92	4.99

Teachers in the D. C. system who have permanent status tend to have more assurance, on all three school levels, than do teachers with either probationary or temporary status. On the elementary and, to a lesser extent, on the junior high school level, teachers of students who are in the Honors "track" have more assurance than do those of students in the other "tracks." On the senior high school level, however, it is the teachers of students in the Regular track who have the most assurance.

Although in the elementary schools the female teachers have more assurance than do the male teachers, the difference in assurance is less marked between the sexes than it is either between the races or among the teachers of differing licensing status.

Authoritarianism. Five items from the so-called "F-scale" were used to construct an "Authoritarianism Index." The individual teachers were then classified as "high," "medium" or "low" in authoritarianism. The data corroborate the findings of other

1/ Scale scores in this section were computed for purposes of comparison with the SRC data. They represent an average number of "favorable" responses.

studies: the teachers of young children tend to be more authoritarian than do the teachers of junior and senior high school students.

Table B-46

Mean Scores on the Assurance Scale, by Level
by Licensing Status,
Track Mainly Taught, and Sex
(Range is from 0-6)

	Elementary	Junior High	Senior High
Licensing Status			
Permanent	4.61	4.83	5.00
Probationary	4.10	4.33	4.59
Temporary	4.05	4.38	4.45
Track Mainly Taught			
Special Academic	4.17	4.56	4.37
General	4.11	4.54	4.54
Regular	4.37	4.49	4.83
Honors	4.79	4.96	4.33
Sex			
Male	4.07	4.53	4.55
Female	4.34	4.54	4.76

Table B-47

Authoritarianism, by Level

	Elementary N=709 %	Junior High N=610 %	Senior High N=763 %
Authoritarianism			
High	29	27	22
Medium	48	45	41
Low	23	28	36

In Washington the difference among school levels is reinforced by the differences in the proportion of Negroes and of whites at each level: within each school level the whites are significantly less authoritarian than are the Negroes.

The teachers who are assigned to the lower tracks tend to have (or to develop) more authoritarianism than do those with most of their students in the higher tracks. At the two extremes are the teachers of the basic track on the elementary level, nearly half of whom are high in authoritarianism, and the teachers of the Honors track in senior high school, none of whom are high in authoritarianism.

Table B-48

Authoritarianism, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=578 %	White N=131 %	Negro N=474 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=431 %	White N=332 %
Authoritarianism						
High	31	19	29	18	28	16
Medium	49	45	48	37	44	37
Low	20	36	23	45	28	47

Predisposition toward Certain Social Groups. A "feeling thermometer" was used in an effort to assess the D. C. teachers' opinions of various groups in the population of the United States. This technique was used in a 1965 national Citizenship Study of 1669 high school seniors, a sample of their parents and the social studies teachers having the most contact with the students during senior high. The study was made by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan under the direction of M. Kent Jennings.

Table B-49

Authoritarianism by Track and Level

	Special	General	Regular	Honors
Elementary	N=57* %	N=183 %	N=351 %	N=26* %
High	47	31	27	19
Medium	35	50	49	62
Low	18	19	24	19
Junior High	N=66* %	N=83* %	N=393 %	N=25* %
High	38	31	24	8
Medium	39	39	48	60
Low	23	30	28	32
Senior High	N=16* %	N=366 %	N=276 %	N=20* %
High	38	27	18	-
Medium	31	43	38	50
Low	31	30	44	50

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Feelings about groups are quite consistent throughout the three levels of the school system. Teachers at each level feel warmest toward Negroes, Peace Corps, Protestants, and College Professors. They are coolest toward the Ku Klux Klan, Communists, John Birchers and Black Power. The largest absolute difference in feeling by school level is only 7.3 (toward Atheists).

Table B-50

Average Rating of D. C. Teachers on "Feeling Thermometer" by Level

Groups on Thermometer	Elementary N=648-686	Junior High N=581-609	Senior High N=733-765
Negroes	79.4	78.7	75.2
Peace Corps	74.5	73.8	74.6
Protestants	73.2	75.0	71.8
College Professors	71.9	75.9	77.3
Catholics	68.4	69.6	68.0
Poverty Program Workers	67.8	67.1	65.4
Northerners	67.5	68.2	67.6
Civil Rights Marchers	65.5	65.3	62.2
Jews	64.3	67.6	67.5
Whites	63.8	65.7	67.7
Recipients of Poverty Aid	60.7	60.8	59.7
Big Business	60.4	63.8	61.7
Labor Unions	59.1	61.4	59.2
Southerners	51.9	61.4	59.2
Atheists	30.6	32.5	37.9
Black Power	29.9	30.3	26.5
John Birchers	15.8	12.0	12.3
Communists	13.1	14.3	16.7
Ku Klux Klan	4.2	3.2	3.7

"Feelings" by Race and Level. There are groups toward whom the teachers of both races feel particularly warm -- Peace Corps Workers, Protestants and College Professors. Similarly, there are other groups toward whom the teachers, irrespective of race, are very cool -- Ku Klux Klan, Communists and John Birchers.

There are, however, significant differences in the "feelings" of the D. C. teachers by race within each level. The greatest difference is seen at the elementary school level in feeling toward Civil Rights Marchers -- 39.4, almost six times greater than the largest absolute difference seen by level. Seven groups among the 19 included in the thermometer reflect the greatest difference in the D. C. teachers' feelings, by race. The Negro teachers at each level feel more warmly than the white toward Negroes, Civil Rights Marchers, Poverty Program Workers, Recipients of Poverty Aid, Labor Unions and Black Power. The only group about which the whites feel more warmly than the Negroes is the whites.

Teaching Preferences by SES Groups. The Washington teachers were asked two questions, in addition to the "feeling thermometer," which are designed to reveal their predispositions toward social groups: They were asked whether they preferred to teach (1) children of professional and white collar workers or children of factory and other

Table B-51

Average Rating of D. C. Teachers on "Feeling Thermometer," by Level and Race

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro (1)	White (2)	Negro (3)	White (4)	Negro (5)	White (6)
Peace Corps Workers	75.2	71.1	74.2	72.1	75.9	73.3
Protestants	73.0	74.5	76.7	68.7	73.8	69.0
College Professors	71.5	73.5	75.9	75.4	77.6	76.6
Catholics	68.8	66.3	71.0	63.8	69.6	65.8
Northerners	67.3	67.5	69.5	63.4	67.9	67.0
Jews	62.9	70.1	67.9	65.9	67.1	68.0
Big Business	61.4	56.6	65.6	57.1	63.7	59.6
Southerners	50.6	59.0	49.8	50.3	49.7	54.7
Atheists	30.4	31.6	31.4	36.3	34.8	42.5
John Birchers	15.9	15.7	12.1	12.5	10.8	14.6
Communists	13.3	11.7	13.0	18.2	14.5	20.6
Ku Klux Klan	4.3	3.7	2.7	4.9	2.6	5.5

N ranges from (1) 514-529, (2) 113-121, (3) 425-447, (4) 127-133, (5) 400-407, (6) 312-320

Table B-52

Feeling Toward Groups by Level of School and Race

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro (1)	White (2)	Negro (3)	White (4)	Negro (5)	White (6)
Negroes	82.3	67.9	82.5	64.6	82.7	65.5
Civil Rights Marchers	72.7	33.3	71.7	43.8	75.7	44.2
Poverty Program Workers	70.3	57.1	69.3	61.3	69.3	60.3
Recipients of Poverty Aid	62.5	52.9	63.5	52.3	64.7	52.9
Labor Unions	61.6	47.1	65.9	45.1	64.1	53.6
Whites	61.4	74.8	64.7	68.6	64.2	72.6
Black Power	33.9	12.3	33.9	18.9	31.6	19.4

N ranges from (1) 514-529, (2) 113-121, (3) 425-447, (4) 127-133, (5) 400-407, (6) 312-320

blue collar workers, and (2) in an all-white or mostly white school or in an all-Negro or mostly Negro school. Because Colemen et al. asked the same questions, it is possible to compare the findings of the Study of Washington Teachers with national norms.

Being primarily Negroes themselves, the teachers in Washington are much less prejudiced in favor of white students and in favor of students from middle-class homes than are the teachers in the nation as a whole.

Table B-53

Percent of Teachers Who Prefer to Teach Children

	National Data (Coleman)	Washington N=721	Secondary School: National Data (Coleman)	Secondary School: Washington Junior High N=644	Secondary School: Washington Senior High N=821
	%	%	%	%	%
Who are white	30	7	25	8	13
Of professional and white collar workers	12	7	16	8	11

Comparisons between the Washington teachers and the teachers in Coleman's study are more meaningful when race (in both studies) and geographical area (in Coleman's study) are held constant. The preferences of the Negro teachers in the Washington school system do not differ widely from those reported by Coleman for the Negro teachers in the Metropolitan Northeast[1/] and in the metropolitan South. Roughly the same percent of white teachers in the District of Columbia and in the metropolitan Northeast and South (about 20%) would prefer teaching "mostly children of professional and white collar workers." The attitudes of the white teachers in Washington, however, toward the racial composition of their student body differ from (and fall between) the attitudes of white teachers in Northeastern and in Southern cities. The white teachers in the District of Columbia -- half of whom are not native to the South -- appear to be much less prejudiced against having Negroes in their classroom than do white teachers in the South. A much larger proportion of D. C. white teachers than of Northeastern white teachers, however, prefers a mostly white student body.

Table B-54

Percent of Washington Teachers Who Prefer To Teach Children

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=565	White N=125	Negro N=457	White N=126	Negro N=418	White N=318
	%	%	%	%	%	%
Who are white	2	31	1	35	2	29
Of professional and white collar workers	5	21	7	19	7	20

1/ Coleman's figures for the metropolitan Northeast include the District of Columbia.

Table B-55

Percent of Teachers Who Prefer to Teach Children
(from Coleman, op. cit., pp. 167ff.)

	Elementary				Secondary			
	Metro-politan Northeast		Metro-politan South		Metro-politan Northeast*		Metro-politan South	
	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %	Negro %	White %
Who are white	5	15	1	62	6	13	2	59
Of professional and white collar workers	12	17	3	19	16	21	5	25

* Coleman's figures for the metropolitan Northeast include the District of Columbia.

Factors Interfering with Teaching and Learning

The teachers in our sample were given a list of factors that are known sometimes to interfere with teaching and learning. They were asked to check off which if any caused problems in their own classroom. The percent of teachers at each level who reported classroom interference by each of the items is listed in Table B-56.

The items which were checked by at least 50 percent of the teachers on the elementary level were (1) poor home environment of the students, (2) insufficient parental interest, (3) oversized classes, (4) time-consuming discipline problems, and (5) poor training. On the junior and senior high levels another problem is added to the above five -- excessive student absenteeism. On the senior high level, discipline is viewed as less of a problem than it is on the other levels.

There is an increase with each succeeding level in the proportion of teachers who report that poor training (50% - 73% - 72%), absenteeism (36% = 59% - 69%) and disinterest on the part of students (28% - 48% - 49%) are troublesome features of their classrooms. On the other hand, certain problems decrease in the higher levels. Low level of student intelligence, poor home environment, excessive parental interference and oversized classes are not so problematic in the secondary schools as they are in the elementary.

Responses to several items in the list should be considered together: low level of intelligence and poor training in basic skills, for example. Secondary school teachers are more liable to be bothered by poor training in basic skills than they are on the elementary level. At all levels, more teachers attribute poor learning to poor training than to low intelligence. Excessive student similarity and dissimilarity can be treated as a pair; neither is considered a great problem. Heterogeneity, however, is more troublesome than homogeneity. Two items which relate to the students' home life are home environment and the sufficiency of food and clothing. Poor home environment is a major source of complaint, but lack of food and poor clothing are not.

The two items related to parental involvement in the child's school activities reinforce each other. On every school level at least six out of ten teachers say that parents do not take enough interest in their children's schoolwork. However, only 14%, 9% and 6% on the elementary, junior, and senior high school levels respectively,

Table B-56

Factors Which Interfere with Teaching and Learning by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=645 %	Senior High N=821 %
Poor home environment	68	64	56
Parents don't take enough interest in their children's schoolwork	65	66	59
Classes are too large	64	59	51
Too much time has to be spent on discipline	57	60	34
Poor training in basic skills	50	73	72
Low level of intelligence of students	41	43	34
Too many absences	36	59	69
Students are not interested in learning	28	48	49
Pupils are not well-fed or well-clothed	26	26	9
There is too much student turnover	25	17	17
Students are too different in ability and skills	18	23	23
There is too much faculty turnover	16	23	29
Parents pressure students too much to get good grades	14	12	11
Parents attempt to interfere	14	9	6
Students are too similar in ability and skills	12	9	8
The different socio-economic groups don't get along well together	8	7	5
There is too much competition for good grades	7	9	9

reported that parents interfered to a degree that disturbed teaching and learning in their classrooms.

By Race. Within the elementary school level, there is high consensus among both Negro and white teachers on the three factors that they believe interfere with teaching and learning in their classrooms: (1) poor home environment, (2) insufficient parental interest in their children's work, and (3) oversized classes. But in all three cases, more Negro teachers than white teachers cite these conditions as problems. Negro teachers are more likely than are white teachers to claim to be hampered in their efforts by time-consuming discipline, by the low level of intelligence of their students, and by the poor training in basic skills that their students have received. On the other hand, white teachers are more likely than are Negro teachers to complain of parents' pressuring their students for good grades, an undue amount of competition between the students and excessive differences among their students' skills. Overall, the Negro teachers check more factors interfering with learning than do the white teachers. This finding may reflect the fact that Negro teachers are more often located in the lower tracks.

Table B-57

Factors Which Interfere with Teaching and Learning by Level and Race

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=572 %	White N=131 %	Negro N=475 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=431 %	White N=332 %
Poor home environment	70	59	66	57	56	55
Parents don't take enough interest in their children's schoolwork	69	50	70	53	62	[illegible]
Classes are too large	68	47	58	63	51	51
Too much time has to be spent on discipline	60	45	62	55	30	37
Poor training in basic skills	53	36	75	73	72	74
Low level of intelligence of students	42	31	46	35	30	39
Too many absences	36	34	59	59	65	74
Students are not interested in learning	28	27	50	46	43	57
Pupils are not well-fed or well-clothed	27	19	28	16	10	7
There is too much student turnover	27	18	18	12	18	16
Students are too different in ability and skills	18	24	24	21	20	27
There is too much faculty turnover	17	10	24	20	28	30
Parents pressure students too much to get good grades	12	23	9	24	8	16
Parents attempt to interfere	13	15	9	10	4	8
Students are too similar in ability and skills	13	15	9	10	4	8
The different socio-economic groups don't get along well together	7	7	8	4	5	5
There is too much competition for good grades	6	11	5	21	6	14

In the junior high schools a factor relatively unimportant in the elementary schools is apparently salient for both races -- poor training in basic skills. Regardless of race, three out of every four teachers report that their pupils are ill-trained in these skills. Teachers of both races complain of insufficient parental interest in their children's work (70% of Negro teachers had 53% of white). Again, the Negro teachers outnumber the whites in checking teaching problems attributable to the poor home environment of their students (66% Negro, 57% white). Approximately six out of ten teachers of each race report that excessive absences and oversized classes are troublesome. Negro teachers check items more frequently than do whites, except those dealing with parental pressure or student competition for good grades.

Whereas the elementary and junior high Negro teachers check more factors than do whites, this is not so at the senior high level. The difference between the frequency of Negro and white responses, however, decreases at this upper level. Only one item -- students are not interested in learning -- elicited a difference of over 10% between the two races. White teachers (57%) complained of disinterested students more often than did the Negroes (43%).

Low level of student intelligence, excessive absenteeism, parental pressure, and student competition for good grades were also cited more frequently by whites (9% difference). The only item on which Negroes checked more than whites is insufficient parental interest (8% difference). Thus, the overall picture in senior high school shows general racial consensus on the factors that interfere with classroom teaching and learning.

In summary, at the elementary level there are differences between the races as to what disturbs the classroom; on the senior high level there is more agreement. Since the faculty of the secondary schools is more often racially integrated than is the faculty of the elementary schools, it is primarily on the upper level that white teachers come in contact with the Negro students. White and Negro teachers tend to agree on these issues when they are teaching pupils only of their own race.

By Track. As might be expected, teachers of the higher academic tracks are more likely to be concerned with parental interference, parental pressure for good grades and excessive student competition, than are their colleagues teaching the lower tracks. As the teachers perceive it, both excessive and insufficient parental interest in their children's schooling is highly correlated with the track level of the child. (See Table B-58.)

Other problems cluster in the lower tracks: poor home environment and inadequate food and clothing increase as perceived problems in the lower tracks. In fact, the proportion of SAC-track teachers complaining of problems related to poor home environment is the largest for any factor on any academic level in any track. Student absenteeism and discipline problems are also perceived as greater in the lower than in the higher tracks. At the elementary level, low intelligence is seen as causing problems more frequently in the lower tracks; but in the senior highs, the problems caused by low level of intelligence are evenly spread throughout the tracks. For all other items, there are only slight differences among the tracks in the degree to which they are perceived as interfering with teaching and learning.

By Licensing Status. An analysis of classroom interferences by the licensing status of the teachers reveals no differences between the problems of permanent, probationary, and temporary teachers in the elementary schools. In the junior high schools the only 10% difference between teachers of different licensing status occurs in the response to the "disinterested students" item: the majority of permanent

Table B-58

Factors That Interfere with Teaching and Learning In Your Classroom, by Track and Level

I - Honors II - Regular III - General IV - Special Academic*

		Elementary	Junior	Senior
Poor home environment	I	46	20	40
	II	68	65	48
	III	77	74	64
	IV	77	83	69
Pupils are not well-fed or well-clothed	I	8	4	0
	II	23	22	4
	III	26	43	11
	IV	46	46	25
Parents don't take enough interest in their children's schoolwork	I	27	24	50
	II	65	68	55
	III	77	78	70
	IV	75	82	75
Parents attempt to interfere	I	31	24	25
	II	14	7	7
	III	15	9	5
	IV	7	14	6
Parents pressure students too much to get good grades	I	42	64	30
	II	16	12	15
	III	9	6	6
	IV	5	5	0
There is too much competition for good grades	I	27	36	25
	II	7	10	14
	III	6	4	6
	IV	5	3	0
*N's	I	26	25	20
	II	351	393	277
	III	183	82	366
	IV	57	66	16

When analyzing the above table one must keep in mind the fact that students and faculty are not equally distributed among the four tracks. Instead, as the N's show, over 85% of the faculty in each level teaches either Regular or General track students.

Table B-58 (continued)

		Elementary	Junior	Senior
Low level of intelligence of students	I	15	12	35
	II	37	45	31
	III	50	50	38
	IV	65	53	38
Poor training in basic skills	I	23	44	80
	II	50	77	73
	III	55	77	76
	IV	54	83	81
Students are not interested in learning	I	15	24	20
	II	24	50	54
	III	39	59	53
	IV	30	56	50
Too much time has to be spent on discipline	I	19	24	20
	II	56	63	29
	III	71	65	39
	IV	60	76	50
Classes are too large	I	58	56	70
	II	69	65	54
	III	67	57	52
	IV	39	61	38
Too many absences	I	19	44	35
	II	39	59	66
	III	39	68	76
	IV	30	80	75
The different socio-economic groups don't get along well together	I	0	4	15
	II	7	7	3
	III	9	9	6
	IV	11	6	6
There is too much student turnover	I	12	8	5
	II	29	15	12
	III	22	17	20
	IV	23	29	6
There is too much faculty turnover	I	0	24	50
	II	16	21	27
	III	18	32	32
	IV	12	32	50
Students are too similar in ability and skills	I	8	4	0
	II	9	7	4
	III	17	13	13
	IV	18	18	6
Students are too different in ability and skills	I	15	8	30
	II	17	24	24
	III	20	28	24
	IV	32	27	25

teachers have "interested students," the majority of temporary teachers do not. At the senior high level, several factors are correlated with the teachers' licensing status. Parental interference and disinterest, oversized classes, discipline problems, and ill-fed and ill-clothed students are viewed as clustering in the classrooms of temporary teachers. The competition-related items elicited more response from the permanent teachers. Despite these variations, the overall impression is that teachers with different licensing statuses generally perceive similar problems.

By Sex. In the case of perceived teaching and learning hindrances, differences in response based on the sex of the teachers are virtually non-existent. In the secondary schools, there is no item which shows a 10% difference between male and female teachers. In the elementary schools, females are more likely than males to complain of interfering parents and of students with a low IQ. A majority of the female teachers check discipline problems; a majority of the male teachers do not.

Factors in Satisfaction with the Job of Teaching. Whatever their complaints, the teachers in the District school system say, six to one, that "all things considered" they find their present job to be satisfying rather than dissatisfying.

Table B-59

Degree of Satisfaction with Present Job, by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
Very satisfying	33	30	34
Fairly satisfying	51	53	53
Not very satisfying	11	12	8
Not satisfying	4	4	3
No answer	1	1	2

On the junior and senior high school levels, Negro and white teachers are equally likely to have a positive rather than a negative attitude towards their jobs. The white teachers on the elementary school level are more likely than are the Negro teachers to say that their job gives them a good deal of satisfaction.

Table B-60

Degree of Satisfaction with Present Job, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=573 %	White N=181 %	Negro N=465 %	White N=136 %	Negro N=424 %	White N=329 %
Very satisfying	30	46	31	27	36	35
Fairly satisfying	55	40	53	57	53	54
Not very satisfying	11	10	12	12	9	8
Not satisfying	4	4	4	4	2	3

Neither the sex nor the licensing status of the teachers is related to the amount of satisfaction which they say that they get from their job. In contrast, the track taught bears a definite relation to job satisfaction. At all three school levels, the teachers of the higher tracks get more satisfaction from their job than do the teachers of the low tracks.

Table B-61

Degree of Satisfaction with Present Job, by Track and Level

Elementary	Special Academic N=57* %	General N=181 %	Regular N=350 %	Honors N=26* %
Very satisfying	25	29	30	61
Fairly satisfying	53	51	56	39
Not very satisfying	11	17	10	-
Not satisfying	11	3	4	-
Junior High	**N=66***	**N=82***	**N=389**	**N=25***
	%	%	%	%
Very satisfying	33	18	29	44
Fairly satisfying	33	62	56	52
Not very satisfying	26	11	12	4
Not satisfying	8	9	3	-
Senior High	**N-16***	**N-362**	**N=275**	**N=20***
	%	%	%	%
Very satisfying	19	29	38	30
Fairly satisfying	50	57	53	65
Not very satisfying	19	9	8	5
Not satisfying	12	5	1	1

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table B-62

Teachers' Perception of Degree of Students' Liking of School, by Level

	Elementary N-741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
Very much	33	7	8
Quite a bit	38	32	36
Somewhat	22	41	40
Not much	5	16	13
Not at all	1	2	1
No answer	1	2	2

Students' Enjoyment of School. Finding their jobs satisfying, for the most part the teachers believe their students find school enjoyable rather than unenjoyable.

Over two-thirds of the teachers in the elementary schools believe that most of their students like school at least "quite a bit." Fewer of the teachers on the junior and senior high school levels, however -- although the teachers themselves are as satisfied with their job as are the elementary school teachers -- believe that their students like school.

The race of the teacher is significantly related to perception of students' liking of school on the senior high school level: white teachers are less likely than are Negro teachers to be noncommittal about their students' sentiments, more likely to say that their students like school "quite a lot" or do not like it much (Table B-63).

Table B-63

Teachers' Perception of Degree of Students' Liking of School, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=571 %	White N=129 %	Negro N=463 %	White N=133 %	Negro N=423 %	White N=326 %
Very much and quite a bit	70	81	37	47	44	48
Somewhat	24	11	46	32	44	33
Not much and not at all	6	8	17	21	11	19

The sex of the teachers in the D. C. public school system is not strongly related to teachers' perceptions of their students' liking of schools. On the elementary level, however, more of the women (74%) than of the men (60%) say that their students enjoy school "a great deal" or "quite a bit."

The teachers' licensing status and the level at which they teach is more highly related than is either race or sex to the teachers' opinions of their students' attitudes. Teachers whose licensing status is permanent are more likely than are those whose licensing status is probationary or temporary to report that their students thoroughly enjoy school (Table B-64). The relationship between teachers' licensing status and belief in students' enjoyment is particularly strong on the senior high school level.

The men and women who teach the higher tracks are much more likely than are the teachers of the lower tracks to believe that their pupils enjoy going to school. For example, only one of the 71 teachers of an Honors track in this sample reported that most of her students did not enjoy school very much.

Table B-64

Teachers' Perception of Degree of Students' Liking of School,
by Licensing Status and Level

	Permanent	Probationary	Temporary
Elementary	N=271	N=217	N=234
	%	%	%
Very much and Quite a lot	78	70	66
Somewhat	18	26	25
Not much and Not at all	4	4	9
Junior High School	N=261	N=227	N=135
	%	%	%
Very much and Quite a lot	47	38	31
Somewhat	40	43	45
Not much and Not at all	13	19	24
Senior High School	N=286	N=112	N=396
	%	%	%
Very much and Quite a lot	61	37	36
Somewhat	31	45	45
Not much and Not at all	8	18	19

Table B-65

Teachers' Perception of Degree of Students' Liking of School,
by Track Taught and Level

	Special Academic	General	Regular	Honors
Elementary	N=57*	N=181	N=350	N=26*
	%	%	%	%
Very much and Quite a lot	62	66	77	96
Somewhat	26	25	19	4
Not much and Not at all	12	9	4	-
Junior High School	N=66*	N=81*	N=387	N=25*
	%	%	%	%
Very much and Quite a lot	21	31	43	60
Somewhat	47	44	41	36
Not much and Not at all	32	25	16	4
Senior High School	N=16*	N=364	N=273	N=20*
	%	%	%	%
Very much and Quite a lot	31	38	53	80
Somewhat	38	42	38	20
Not much and Not at all	31	20	9	-

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

By contrast, on the junior and senior high school levels at least one-fifth of the teachers of the Special Academic and of the General tracks reported a predominantly negative attitude in their classroom.

Satisfaction with Quality of School Work. Teachers at all three school levels report (six to one) that they find their jobs satisfying and on the elementary level, that their pupils like rather than dislike schools (twelve to one). But relatively fewer teachers report satisfaction with the quality of the schoolwork being done by their pupils. Nonetheless, on all levels more teachers are satisfied than are dissatisfied with the quality of the work which their pupils are doing.

Table B-66

Satisfaction with Quality of Schoolwork, by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
Very satisfied	12	8	5
Somewhat satisfied	51	43	42
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	9	11	9
Somewhat dissatisfied	20	27	29
Very dissatisfied	5	7	10
No answer	3	4	5

As fewer secondary than elementary teachers believe their pupils enjoy school, so do fewer high school than elementary school teachers feel satisfied with the quality of the school work which their pupils are turning out.

Another indication of the existence, at the elementary and junior high school levels, of an unofficial four track system within the official three track system is provided by the attitudes of the teachers toward the quality of their students' school work. Those teachers on the elementary and junior high, as well as on the senior high level, who say that most of their students are in the Regular track are appreciably more satisfied with their schoolwork than are those who say that most of their students are in the General track.

These tables clearly indicate a direct relation between track taught and the degree to which teachers are satisfied with the quality of their students' schoolwork: teachers of higher tracks report far higher satisfaction than do those of the lower tracks. The dichotomy is between the Special Academic and General tracks on the one hand, and the Regular and Honors tracks on the other. Whereas the teachers of the Special Academic and General tracks are evenly split into those who are satisfied and those who are dissatisfied, the teachers of the Regular and Honors tracks report more satisfaction than dissatisfaction.

On every academic level -- elementary, junior high and senior high -- the Honors teachers are the most satisfied and the General teachers are the most dissatisfied. In fact, it is only within the General track that there are more dissatisfied than satisfied teachers.

Table B-67

Satisfaction with Quality of Schoolwork,
by Track and by Level

	Special Academic	General	Regular	Honors
Elementary	N=57*	N=178	N=347	N=26*
	%	%	%	%
Very satisfied and Somewhat satisfied	49	48	74	92
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	18	17	5	8
Somewhat dissatisfied and Very dissatisfied	33	35	21	-
Junior High	N=66*	N=80*	N=387	N=23*
	%	%	%	%
Very satisfied and Somewhat satisfied	44	40	57	74
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	15	13	11	9
Somewhat dissatisfied and Very dissatisfied	41	47	32	27
Senior High	N=15*	N=359	N=270	N=19*
	%	%	%	%
Very satisfied and Somewhat satisfied	47	43	57	84
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	13	9	9	5
Somewhat dissatisfied and Very dissatisfied	40	48	34	11

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Teachers' Job Satisfaction in Relation to Their Perception of Students' Enjoyment of School and Quality of Schoolwork. In the best of all possible schools the students and the teachers would enjoy their respective roles and each would perform them more than adequately. On the other hand, if the achievement of the students were poor, the teachers would be disgruntled and the students themselves would be disenchanted with the school. In the Washington schools there is, in fact, a high correlation among the three variables, as reported by teachers: job satisfaction, pupil enjoyment of school and pupil performance. The relationship is strong at all three school levels.

As Table B-68 indicates, the more teachers believe that their pupils enjoy school, the more satisfying they find their own jobs. Causal factors, presumably, are working in both directions: the more a teacher likes teaching, the more her pupils like school; and the more her pupils like school, the more a teacher likes teaching.

The same kind of interaction is undoubtedly going on with respect to schoolwork: the more satisfaction a teacher gets from her work, the greater the achievement of her

her pupils; and the better the schoolwork done by her pupils, the more she enjoys teaching school. (See Table B-69.)

Table B-68

Teacher Job Satisfaction, by Student Enjoyment, by Level

	Pupils' Enjoyment of School		
	Very much and Quite a lot	Somewhat	Not much and Not at all
Elementary	N=528	N=162	N=42*
	%	%	%
Job Satisfaction			
Very satisfying	40	16	9
Fairly satisfying	49	61	55
Not very and Not satisfying	11	23	36
Junior High	N=250	N=264	N=114
	%	%	%
Job Satisfaction			
Very satisfying	48	23	7
Fairly satisfying	49	63	41
Not very and Not satisfying	3	14	52
Senior High	N=360	N=324	N=116
	%	%	%
Job Satisfaction			
Very satisfying	51	25	14
Fairly satisfying	45	63	55
Not very and Not satisfying	4	12	31

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

There is also a strong relationship between the teachers' ratings of their pupils' enjoyment of school and the teachers' satisfaction with their pupils' schoolwork. If the pupils are enjoying school, the teachers believe they are much more likely to be doing good schoolwork than if they do not find school much fun at all. Clearly, in this case, changes in each of the two factors is likely to "cause" changes in the other.

Comparison of "Your" School with National Average. By and large, Washington teachers report that their own occupation is satisfying, that their pupils enjoy going to school, and that they are pleased -- even on the high school level -- with the quality of the schoolwork done by their pupils. Having presented this rather rosy picture of conditions in the school system, the teachers then reported, on the average, that -- compared with other public schools in the United States "as far as giving a good education is concerned" -- their school is "about the same as most."

The tendency to regard oneself as "normal" or "just like everybody else" is often observed in attitude research. Satisfied in general, the District teachers tend to report that the school in which they teach is "about the same as most" in terms of the quality of education which it provides.

Table B-69

Quality of Schoolwork by Teacher Job Satisfaction, by Level

	Quality of Schoolwork		
	Very and Somewhat satisfying	Neither satisfying nor dissatisfying	Somewhat and Very dissatisfying
Elementary	N=468	N=70*	N=184
	%	%	%
Job Satisfaction			
Very satisfying	41	23	14
Fairly satisfying	49	61	57
Not very and not satisfying	10	16	29
Junior High	N=325	N=73*	N=216
	%	%	%
Job Satisfaction			
Very satisfying	42	19	14
Fairly satisfying	51	64	55
Not very and not satisfying	7	17	31
Senior High	N=385	N=69*	N=322
	%	%	%
Job Satisfaction			
Very satisfying	47	32	19
Fairly satisfying	49	59	60
Not very and not satisfying	4	9	21

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

At all three school levels, white teachers are decidedly more likely than are Negro teachers to believe that the education offered by their school is better than that offered by most schools throughout the nation.

There is no consistent relationship between either the licensing status of the teachers or the sex of the teachers and their perception of the merit of the education offered by the schoosl in which they teach.

At all three levels, the track in which most of their students are located is significantly related to the teachers' perception of their school vis-a-vis other schools. Teachers of higher tracks are generally more likely than are teachers of lower tracks to believe that their school compares favorably with other public schools in the United States.

Table B-70

Quality of Schoolwork by Students' Enjoyment of School, by Level

	Very much and Quite a lot	Somewhat	Not much and Not at all
Elementary	N=520	N=160	N=42*
	%	%	%
Teachers' Evaluation of Schoolwork			
Very and Somewhat satisfied	73	48	21
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	9	12	10
Somewhat and Very dissatisfied	18	40	69
Junior High	N=244	N=256	N=113
	%	%	%
Teachers' Evaluation of Schoolwork			
Very and Somewhat satisfied	75	45	23
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	9	15	12
Somewhat and Very dissatisfied	16	40	65
Senior High	N=346	N=315	N=115
	%	%	%
Teachers' Evaluation of Schoolwork			
Very and Somewhat satisfied	69	39	17
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	8	10	11
Somewhat and Very dissatisfied	23	51	72

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table B-71

Comparison of "Your" School with National Average, by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=644 %	Senior High N=821 %
Better than most	20	20	22
About the same as most	56	50	51
Not so good as most	21	27	23
No answer	3	3	4

Table B-72

Comparison of "Your" School with National Average,
by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=561 %	White N=129 %	Negro N=460 %	White N=134 %	Negro N=415 %	White N=320 %
Better than most	16	44	16	40	17	31
About the same as most	62	40	55	36	59	44
Not so good as most	22	16	29	24	24	25

Table B-73

Comparison of "Your" School with National Average,
by Track and Level

	Special Academic N=55* %	General N=176 %	Regular N=343 %	Honors N=26* %
Elementary				
Better than most	9	18	20	58
About the same as most	69	60	58	38
Not so good as most	22	22	22	4
Junior High	N=66 %	N=81* %	N=384 %	N=25* %
Better than most	15	12	21	60
About the same as most	44	61	51	36
Not so good as most	41	27	28	4
Senior High	N=16* %	N=351 %	N=267 %	N=20* %
Better than most	25	16	30	60
About the same as most	56	57	49	35
Not so good as most	19	27	21	5

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Comparison of "Your" School with the National Average in Relation to Job Satisfaction, Pupils' Enjoyment of School and Quality of Pupils' Schoolwork. The greater a teacher's satisfaction with his job, the more his pupils are thought to enjoy school; the better the quality of schoolwork, the more favorably he believes his school compares with other public schools in the United States. The relationships are strong.

Table B-74

Teacher's Job Evaluation by Comparison of "Your" School with National Average, by Level

	Teacher's Job Evaluation		
	Very satisfying	Fairly satisfying	Not Very and Not satisfying
Elementary	N=240 %	N=370 %	N=108 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	35	15	8
About the same as most	57	62	46
Not so good as most	8	23	55
Junior High	N=189 %	N=333 %	N=101 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	38	16	4
About the same as most	54	56	32
Not so good as most	8	28	64
Senior High	N=277 %	N=419 %	N=87* %
My School Is:			
Better than most	41	15	5
About the same as most	47	59	41
Not as good as most	12	26	54

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table B-75

Pupils' Enjoyment of School by Comparison of "Your" School with National Average, by Level

	Pupils' Enjoyment of School		
	Very much and Quite a lot	Somewhat	Not much and Not at all
Elementary	N=517 %	N=158 %	N=39* %
My School Is:			
Better than most	24	13	5
About the same as most	59	54	64
Not so good as most	17	33	31
Junior High	N=247 %	N=262 %	N=110 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	37	12	5
About the same as most	50	59	36
Not so good as most	13	29	59
Senior High	N=351 %	N=315 %	N=113 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	48	12	9
About the same as most	49	61	44
Not so good as most	13	27	47

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Table B-76

Quality of Schoolwork by Comparison of "Your" School with National Average, by Level

	Teachers' Evaluation of Schoolwork		
	Very and Somewhat satisfied	Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	Somewhat and Very dissatisfied
Elementary	N=460 %	N=68* %	N=177 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	25	19	8
About the same as most	62	43	54
Not so good as most	13	38	38
Junior High	N=322 %	N=32* %	N=213 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	29	21	7
About the same as most	51	57	51
Not so good as most	20	22	42
Senior High	N=378 %	N=68* %	N=311 %
My School Is:			
Better than most	37	18	8
About the same as most	51	56	54
Not so good as most	12	26	38

* Percentages are based on an N of less than 100.

Purposes of Education in the District. Washington teachers believe that the schools are meeting the academic needs of the more able students. It is the disadvantaged students who, in their opinion, are being given short shrift. The teachers are convinced that these students do not represent a lost cause. They believe that the disadvantaged are educable, that they can be taught to achieve beyond fifth or sixth grade level, and that they may become good citizens.

The solution to the problem of meeting the needs of the culturally deprived does not lie, according to the teachers, in placing them in classes or in tracks where the work will be harder for them: in their opinion, the work is too hard already. One solution may lie in gearing the curriculum to meet needs of lower-class children. Running through the responses seems to be an undercurrent desire to raise the floor, rather than to reach the ceiling, of academic attainment.

Three items calling for agree-disagree responses dealt more or less directly upon this issue:

> Courses such as band and homemaking are just as worthy of the school's time as are foreign languages and geometry;
>
> The main value of an education is to help a person find a better job; and
>
> The schools should be mainly concerned with teaching subject matter and leave moral and character training to the home or church.

A person who sees the main purpose of education as purely academic in the traditional sense will tend to disagree with the first two statements and agree with the third.

Table B-77

Selected Purposes of Education, by Level

	Elementary N=741 %	Junior High N=646 %	Senior High N=821 %
Band and homemaking just as worthy (agree)	77	83	79
Main value is to find a job (agree)	40	37	26
Main concern should be subject matter (disagree)	75	75	73

The great majority of the teachers at all three school levels in the District do not believe that the schools should concentrate upon subjects such as foreign languages and geometry to the exclusion of band and homemaking. The great majority believe that the schools should concern themselves with moral and character training.

Schools should not, however, serve as employment agencies: their main purpose should not be to help a person find a better job. The exception may be the vocational schools, which are omitted from the present analysis. However, the responses were

tabulated for one vocational high school, Chamberlain. Sixty-three percent of the Negro and 35% of the white teachers in Chamberlain agree that "The main value of an education is to help a person find a better job."

By Race. At all three levels, the District's Negro teachers are more likely than are the white teachers to believe that non-academic subjects are of value and to believe that a legitimate function of schools is to serve as a job forum, as preparation for employment. Both white and Negro teachers, however, are nearly as likely to believe that character training should be a part of the curriculum.

Table B-78

Selected Purposes of Education, by Race and Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=555 %	White N=128 %	Negro N=465 %	White N=135 %	Negro N=419 %	White N=325 %
Band and homemaking just as worthy (agree)	82	70	88	80	88	77
Main value is to find a job (agree)	45	21	41	27	35	17
Main concern should be subject matter (disagree)	78	75	79	75	78	75

There are no consistent differences among the teachers by "track mainly taught" in the value which they believe attaches to the pragmatic and moral as opposed to the traditionally academic functions of the schools. Nothing in the survey of the teachers warrants the conclusion that they regard the scholastic achievement of their pupils as the main criterion of their own success.

The key to the quality of education is the instructional staff. The Bureau of Applied Social Research Survey was aimed at mapping the personal background, attitudes and perceptions of the District teaching staff. It is this staff which will be called on to implement instructional proposals in the immediate years ahead.

System Strengths and Weaknesses As Seen By Teachers. Staff members were asked to write a few paragraphs listing the strengths and weaknesses of the District schools. From the 6225 questionnaires, a random sample of five from each building -- a total of 915 -- were selected for content analysis.

Teachers voiced major dissatisfactions with classroom discipline (110); over-large classes (220); shortages of supplies and teaching materials (105); inadequate and antiquated buildings (85), and excess clerical and non-teaching duties (98).

There was persistent faith that a corps of able and dedicated teachers exists throughout the system (102) but an equally voiced dissatisfaction with the general teaching competence of large numbers of colleagues: a belief that too many teachers did not care enough about the children (81) and placed a heavy burden on the other

dedicated staff members (65). Teachers complained about the promotional system (60) and the salary schedule (61).

Supervisors were generally considered unnecessary or ineffective (85), either because they are part of a "spy system" or because they "crush individuality and creativity" (41). Low teacher morale was mentioned often in terms of "a fear which pervades the system" (50).

While the track system was considered a benevolent structure by some (78) with a curriculum of ample flexibility (28), others (72) saw it as categorically malevolent, too inflexible (30), and particularly hard on the economically disadvantaged (usually a Negro child (21)), as well as on the non-academic student (37).

Some (56) attacked the central office for inefficiency and inept administrators; an almost equal number (54) praised the work of the central office. One of the most common complaints was from teachers (164) who felt that they were neither consulted nor included in the decision-making processes. As they saw it, decisions were made and announced to the teacher who was expected to follow directions without an opportunity to influence or even express an opinion on the matter. A minority rebuked the administration for failing to protect teachers from "blasts of public opinion" (49) and, in fact, for contributing to a negative public image of the teacher (39).

Teachers split in reacting to the system's receptivity to experimentation. This was interpreted as succumbing to community pressures and politics (50); or as plunging into too much experimentation at one time, so that projects have been proliferated with inadequate preparation and valid evaluation (50). On the other hand, there were those who found the great strength of the system to be the opportunity for experimentation (49).

A clear and direct connection between teachers' opinions of administration and the classroom shows through in these criticisms of the curriculum. While to some teachers curricular decisions were consistent, uniform and amply flexible (38), to others the curriculum is far too rigid (25), "lacking in vital consistency from school to school" (23) and inappropriate to "the particular needs of urban slum children" (37).

Parent-school relationships were seen as particularly bad (131) and some teachers suggested that parents be trained to help prepare their children for school (24). Parents' disinterest on the one hand and the school's failure to provide for the special needs of children were cited (62).

If teachers want a closer relationship with the child and his parent, they did not relish "a militant community making demands on a frightened school system which offers the teacher as perpetual sacrifice" (39).

The Board of Education was criticized as composed of "non-educators non-representative of community feelings" (67). The board was mostly roundly castigated because it pressured the system, always using the "teacher as pawn" yet was indifferent to both the professional and the community (67). Finally, if some teachers were appreciative of the District's riches as a source of "the advantage of cultural glory" and of a varied population (28), three times as many cited the fact that "Washington's financial needs are unfulfilled by a congressional control which it seems only home rule can terminate" (85).

More teachers used the essay portion of the questionnaire to criticize and list the problems than to single out strengths. The overall impression suggested a basic morale

problem within the faculty coupled with (or softened by) a desire for creating conditions whereby the professional staff could meet the deepest needs of their large group of disadvantaged.

II. The Principals' Questionnaire Study

When the Teacher Questionnaire Study was conducted in January 1967, a parallel form, especially prepared for the District's school officers, was administered at the same time. Much of the instrument used came from the questionnaire developed by the Bureau of Applied Social Research, with some items added in order to assess specific aspects of the administrator's work. The responses of the principals and assistant principals at each of the three levels were combined to provide a larger base for analysis. Together, they are referred to as "principals" in the tables. The number of responses totaled 219 or 83 percent of all principals and assistant principals in the schools.

Table B-79

Race and Sex of District Principals in Study, by Level

Race/Sex	Elementary School N=110 %	Junior High School N=67 %	Senior High School N=36 %
Negro Female	48	34	14
Negro Male	21	39	47
White Female	25	12	14
White Male	6	15	25

The "typical" elementary school principal was a Negro woman; the "typical" junior or senior high school principal was a Negro man. The principals and assistant principals were somewhat older than were the teachers in the study. Almost half of the principals at each level were between 46 and 55 years of age. See Table B-80.

Table B-80

Age of Teachers and School Officers, by Level

Age	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=114 %	Teachers N=646 %	Principals N=68 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=37 %
25 & under	14	-	17	-	16	-
26 - 35	40	3	32	3	28	3
36 - 45	22	25	26	34	21	32
46 - 55	15	42	17	46	19	46
56 & over	7	30	5	17	13	19
No answer	2	-	3	-	3	-

The elementary principals reported that more than three-fourths were born in or around the District (73 percent in Washington). The junior and senior high principals came predominantly from the Metropolitan area but fewer senior high principals were born in the District itself.

Table B-81

Place Where Principals Grew Up, by Level and by Race[1/]

Place Grew Up	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=76 %	White N=35 %	Negro N=50 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=22 %	White N=14 %
In Washington, D. C.	84	48	64	61	63	29
Within 50 miles of D. C.	3	3	4	6	14	7
More than 50 miles from D. C.						
In a Southern State	5	9	20	-	9	7
Rest of the U. S.	8	40	12	33	14	57

1/ Because of multiple mentions, some columns add to more than 100%.

As with the teachers, the majority of Negro principals resided in the District while the white principals lived in the suburbs. The exceptions were the white junior high school principals, three-fifths of whom lived in Washington. For the Negro principals, the percentage was in excess of 90 percent at each level. Most principals residing outside the District live in Maryland.

Table B-82

Teachers and Principals Place of Residence, by Race and Level

Place of Residence	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=71 %	White N=35 %	Negro N=48 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=22 %	White N=14 %
Washington, D. C.	93	37	90	61	96	29
In Maryland or Virginia	3	60	10	33	-	71
No Answer	4	3	-	6	4	-

The modal income from school sources for the principals was in the $10,000 to $14,999 bracket. A few principals earned over $15,000 and a very few assistant principals were below the $10,000 level. Many of the principals belonged to two-income families.

Table B-83

Principals' Income from School Sources, by Level

Income	Elementary N=113 %	Junior High N=68 %	Senior High N=37 %
Under $7000	1	-	-
$7000 - $9999	-	2	3
$10,000 - $14,999	90	85	86
Over $15,000	9	13	11

When asked about the degree of satisfaction with the present position, the overwhelming majority of principals at all levels and of both races reported that they found the work either "very rewarding" or "fairly rewarding" -- 96 percent, 92 percent and 92 percent at the elementary, junior and senior high levels, respectively. There are no marked differences between the Negro and white principals on degree of satisfaction.

Table B-84

Degree of Satisfaction with Present Job, by Race and Level

Degree of Satisfaction	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=77 %	White N=37 %	Negro N=50 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=22 %	White N=14 %
Very Rewarding	63	63	46	59	60	57
Fairly Rewarding	35	34	46	35	35	36
Not Very Satisfying	3	3	6	6	5	7
Not Satisfying	1	-	2	-	-	-

While the principal and assistant principal perceived themselves as instructional leaders, when asked "On which of the following do you spend a great deal of time?" the items most frequently checked involved administration, clerical duties and conferences. The principals reported that they spent relatively little time on professional meetings, in-service education and community contacts.

Table B-85

Functions on Which Principals Spend Time, by Level[1/]

Function	Elementary N=112 %	Junior High N=68 %	Senior High N=36 %
Administration	85	70	73
Clerical Duties	68	75	89
Parent Conferences	48	61	62
Student Conferences	39	66	81
Faculty Conferences	38	27	24
Classroom Supervision	29	21	16
Professional Meetings	24	8	7
In-Service Education	20	23	4
Community Contacts	14	16	11

1/ Since more than one item could be checked, percentages do not total 100.

The senior high school principals reported spending considerable time on student conferences and, to a lesser extend, on parent conferences. At the senior high level, in-service education apparently is handled by officers other than the principals, possibly department heads.

The principals viewed the channels of communication with the central administration as generally good. More than three-fourths checked "very good" or "reasonably good." There were some differences by race but these were not consistent: at the senior high school level, the percentages for Negro principals were higher than those for the white officers. At the junior high school, the percentages were reversed.

Table B-86

Perception of Channels for Communication with Central Office, by Level and Race

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=76 %	White N=35 %	Negro N=48 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=22 %	White N=14 %
Very good	26	26	25	56	50	29
Reasonably good	55	40	37	33	41	43
Rather poor	19	17	24	11	9	14
Very poor	-	17	4	-	-	14

While interviews with teachers brought out considerable suspicion about the fairness of promotion practices and a good deal of dissatisfaction with the procedures used for appointments to school officer positions, these were not shared by the principals. An overwhelming majority of the principals were "very satisfied" or "somewhat satisfied" with the procedures employed for officer appointments. Similar majorities felt that the promotion procedures were fair or reasonably so.

Table B-87

Degree of Satisfaction with and Perception of Fairness of Procedures for School Officer Appointments, by Level and by Race

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Negro N=77 %	White N=35 %	Negro N=50 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=22 %	White N=14 %
Degree of Satisfaction						
Very and Somewhat Satisfied	67	49	44	72	55	57
Neither Satisfied nor Dissatisfied	7	14	14	22	9	14
Very and Somewhat Dissatisfied	26	37	42	6	36	29
Degree of Fairness						
Very and Reasonably Fair	78	57	59	83	71	50
Equally Fair or Unfair	5	11	2	11	-	21
Somewhat and Very Unfair	17	32	39	6	29	29

Unlike the classroom teachers, the principals at all levels tended to be satisfied with the tracking system. The percentages of principals "extremely" and "very" satisfied were 44 percent at the elementary level, 41 percent at the junior high and 44 at the senior high. Table B-88 compares teachers' satisfaction with that of the principals.

Table B-88

Degree of Satisfaction of Teachers and Principals with the Tracking System, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High School		Senior High School	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=115 %	Teachers N=645 %	Principals N=68 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=38 %
Extremely satisfied	3	19	3	16	5	11
Very satisfied	7	25	10	25	9	33
Quite satisfied	23	36	24	40	25	47
Not so satisfied	44	19	42	16	39	8
Not satisfied at all	17	-	17	3	15	-
No answer	6	1	4	1	7	5

At every school level, the white principals tended to be more satisfied with the tracking procedures than were the Negro principals. While there were differences by race in feelings about tracking among the teachers, these were not as marked as were those between Negro and white principals.

Table B-89

Teachers' and Principals' Satisfaction with Tracking, by Level and by Race

Degree of Satisfaction	Elementary				Junior High School				Senior High School			
	Teachers		Principals		Teachers		Principals		Teachers		Principals	
	Negro N=548 %	White N=122 %	Negro N=49 %	White N=34 %	Negro N=449 %	White N=132 %	Negro N=49 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=402 %	White N-315 %	Negro N=21 %	White N=13 %
Extremely/ Very satisfied	7	30	39	62	10	27	27	78	5	30	24	77
Quite satisfied	22	34	45	15	22	28	47	22	20	35	62	23
Not too/not at all satisfied	71	36	16	23	68	45	26	-	75	35	14	-

Again, in contrast to the teachers, the principals believed that a student placed in the Special Academic track did have a chance to move into a higher track and that he was not permanently frozen where he was. In response to a question about agreement with a statement that students were permanently assigned to the Special Academic track, 65 percent of the elementary principals, 65 percent of the junior high principals and 76 percent of the senior high school principals disagreed. Their responses are compared with those of teachers in Table B-90.

Table B-90

Teachers' and Principals' Beliefs about Permanency of Assignment to the Special Academic Track

Extent of Agreement	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=722 %	Principals N=113 %	Teachers N=627 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=788 %	Principals N=35 %
Agree	48	23	39	23	33	16
Don't Know	18	12	18	12	18	8
Disagree	34	65	43	65	39	76

Even more than did the teachers, the principals agreed with statements which depicted the Special Academic track students as teachable, as having the potential to achieve beyond the fifth or sixth grade level, and as being able to profit from remedial courses. The majority of the principals (51 percent of the elementary, 68 percent of the junior high and 72 percent of the senior high) agreed that those Special Academic students who graduated from high school would become good citizens. These percentages were consistently higher than those of the teachers at each of the levels. See Table B-91.

While there were some differences between principals and teachers as to their beliefs about the schools' meeting the special needs of the disadvantaged, both groups concurred that high standards were being maintained for the more able students. More than four-fifths of the principals expressed the belief that the academically able students were being challenged. The proportions who indicated that they felt the disadvantaged pupils' needs were being met were smaller at all levels.

Table B-92

Teachers' and Principals' Views Concerning Programs Meeting the Needs of the Disadvantaged and the Able Pupils

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=113 %	Teachers N=644 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=36 %
Meeting the Needs of the Disadvantaged						
Strongly Agree	7	6	7	10	5	8
Agree	34	47	26	35	22	27
?	15	10	15	15	16	11
Disagree	29	31	31	30	33	49
Strongly disagree	13	6	19	10	21	5
No answer	2	-	2	-	3	-
Maintaining High Standards for the Able						
Strongly Agree	12	26	17	26	21	29
Agree	41	55	42	60	43	52
?	27	7	18	3	15	3
Disagree	12	10	16	9	13	16
Strongly Disagree	4	2	5	2	5	-
No answer	4	-	2	-	3	-

Table B-91

Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of Teachability and Future of Special Academic Pupils

Agreement/Disagreement with Statement about Special Academic Students	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=115 %	Teachers N=646 %	Principals N=68 %	Teachers N=821 %*	Principals N=37 %
Pupils in the Special Academic group are mainly unteachable.						
Agree	2	3	4	3	4	-
?	16	4	14	4	14	-
Disagree	78	93	79	93	77	100
On the average, students in the Special Academic group cannot be taught to achieve beyond the fifth or sixth grade level.						
Agree	12	25	14	26	12	11
?	38	22	30	21	32	19
Disagree	46	53	52	53	50	70
For the most part, students learn a great deal from remedial courses.						
Agree	53	72	49	72	43	70
?	32	17	35	13	37	19
Disagree	10	12	12	15	15	11
On the average, high school graduates from the Special Academic group will become good citizens.						
Agree	37	51	48	68	45	72
?	48	38	37	23	38	20
Disagree	10	11	11	9	12	8

* Because of the exclusion of the "No Answers," the percentages do not add to 100.

The principals perceived the students' liking of school as being high. The elementary principals and teachers were not too different, 88 and 71 percents, respectively. However, 68 percent of the junior high principals, compared with only 39 percent of the teachers, and 77 percent of the senior high principals, compared with 44 percent of the teachers, expressed the belief that the students' liking of school was high.

Table B-93

Teachers' and Principals' Views of Students' Liking of School, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=112 %	Teachers N=644 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=34 %
Very much	33	37	7	19	8	18
Quite a bit	38	51	32	49	36	59
Somewhat	22	13	41	27	40	23
Not much	5	1	16	-	13	-
Not at all	1	-	2	-	1	-
No answer	1		2		2	

The principals tended to follow the same general pattern in checking items on a list of factors which can interfere with teaching and learning. If anything, the principals tended to check fewer items than did the teachers. On this question, three "factors" were included on the principals' list which were not on the teachers'. Fifty-nine percent of the elementary school principals, 37 percent of the junior high and 43 percent of the senior high principals indicated that they believed that "teachers are inadequately prepared." About half the principals felt teachers spent "too much time on routine details" and only 20 percent or so believed that "poor equipment" interfered with teaching and learning. The comparative responses of teachers and principals are presented in Table B-94.

There was only mild satisfaction among both teachers and principals with the quality of the school work -- about half at each level checking "very" or "somewhat" satisfied. The degree of satisfaction was quite similar to that expressed by the teachers at each level.

The principals expressed slightly higher satisfaction with the quality of teaching in their schools than they did with the general quality of the pupils' work. Three-fifths of the principals at the elementary and senior high school levels and 72 percent of the junior high principals were "very" or "somewhat" satisfied with the quality of teacher in their schools.

Table B-94

Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of Factors which Interfere with Teaching and Learning, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Principals N=113 %	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=645 %	Principals N=38 %	Teachers N=821 %
Poor home environment	75	68	82	64	66	56
Classes are too large	66	64	46	59	55	51
Poor training in basic skills	62	50	81	73	79	72
Teachers are inadequately prepared	59	-	37	-	43	-
Parents don't take enough interest in children's schoolwork	56	65	76	66	69	59
Too much student turnover	55	25	23	17	29	17
Too much time on routine details	47	-	44	-	66	-
Too much time has to be spent on discipline	43	57	75	60	53	34
Too many absences	41	36	69	59	90	69
Pupils not well fed and clothed	33	26	34	26	14	9
Too much faculty turnover	33	16	33	23	55	29
Students are not interested in learning	31	28	61	48	50	49
Low level of intelligence of students	28	41	31	43	21	34
Poor equipment	27	-	19	-	20	-
Parents pressure students too much	20	14	10	12	16	11
Parents attempt to interfere	19	14	15	9	11	6
Students are too different in skills	15	18	9	23	16	23
Students are too similar in skills	10	12	5	9	11	8
Too much competition for grades	9	7	3	9	14	9

Table B-95

Teachers' and Principals' Satisfaction with Quality of Pupils' School Work, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=114 %	Teachers N=644 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=38 %
Very satisfied	12	10	8	3	5	5
Somewhat satisfied	51	47	43	45	42	45
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	9	10	11	9	9	16
Somewhat dissatisfied	20	30	27	31	29	29
Very dissatisfied	5	3	7	12	10	5
No answer	3	-	4	-	5	-

At all levels, most of the principals perceived their schools as "about the same as most" when compared with a "national average." Like the teachers at the same school level, the principals were more inclined to view their schools as being "as good" or "better than most" rather than "not as good as most." To a slight degree, the principals viewed their schools as better than did the teachers. White principals and teachers tended to rate their schools about the same as did the Negro principals and teachers when the "better than" and "about the same as" ratings are combined.

Table B-96

Principals' Satisfaction with the Quality of Teaching

	Elementary School N=114 %	Junior High School N=67 %	Senior High School N=38 %
Very satisfied	15	6	10
Somewhat satisfied	45	66	50
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	12	5	11
Somewhat dissatisfied	26	19	29
Very dissatisfied	2	4	-

Principals and teachers differed on their perceptions of the morale in their schools. The principals tended to view morale in their schools far higher than did the teachers. At the elementary level, 76 percent of the principals but only 36 percent of the teachers agreed that morale was high; at the junior high level, 69 percent as compared with 45 percent of the teachers rated morale high; at the senior high, 61 percent of the principals and only 34 percent of the teachers felt morale was high.

Table B-97

Teachers' and Principals' Comparisons of Their Schools with a National Average, by Level and by Race

	Elementary				Junior High School				Senior High School			
	Principals		Teachers		Principals		Teachers		Principals		Teachers	
	Negro N=74 %	White N-35 %	Negro N=561 %	White N=129 %	Negro N=47 %	White N=18 %	Negro N=460 %	White N=134 %	Negro N=21 %	White N=14 %	Negro N=415 %	White N=320 %
Better than most	12	26	16	44	17	44	16	40	24	50	17	31
About the same as most	78	57	62	40	70	44	55	36	62	36	59	44
Not as good as most	8	14	22	16	13	11	29	24	14	14	24	25
No answer	2	3			-	*						

Table B-98

Teachers' and Principals' Perceptions of High Morale in Their Schools, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=114 %	Teachers N=644 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=38 %
Strongly agree and agree	36	76	45	69	34	61
?	20	11	18	12	22	18
Disagree and Strongly disagree	43	13	35	19	41	21
No answer	1	-	2	-	3	-

Principals tended to perceive more experimentation and more new instructional approaches in their schools than did the teachers at the same levels. At the elementary level, 68 percent of the principals and 54 percent of the teachers agreed that there was a reasonable amount of experimentation. At the junior high level, 68 percent of the principals but only 44 percent of the teachers agreed. Seventy percent of the senior high principals believed that there was experimentation in their schools but only half that proportion (37 percent) of the teachers said they agreed with the statement.

Principals were given a list of nine proposals for organizing schools and asked which they thought should be considered. At the elementary level, 82 percent of the principals checked "non-graded units" and 70 percent "team-teaching." At the junior high level, 79 percent checked "individualized scheduling" and 70 percent "team teaching." Eighty-two percent of the senior high principals suggested considering "individualized scheduling."

Table B-99

Teachers' and Principals' Perception of Reasonable Amount of Experimentation and New Instructional Approaches in Their Schools, by Level

	Elementary		Junior High		Senior High	
	Teachers N=741 %	Principals N=113 %	Teachers N=644 %	Principals N=67 %	Teachers N=821 %	Principals N=37 %
Strongly agree	10	18	10	16	7	13
Agree	44	50	34	52	30	57
?	18	6	23	13	26	8
Disagree	17	23	23	18	22	22
Strongly disagree	7	3	9	-	13	-
No answer	4	-	1	-	2	-

Table B-100

Percentages of Principals Who Believed Various Proposals for Organizing Schools Should Be Considered

Proposal	Elementary %	Junior High %	Senior High %
Non-graded Units	82	37	45
Team Teaching	70	70	66
Continuous Progress Plan	50	36	42
Track System	43	52	55
Individualized Scheduling	36	79	82
Multi-graded Units	25	18	21
Computerized Scheduling	7	36	55
Dual-progress Plan	6	9	5
Trump Plan	4	9	5

System Strengths and Weaknesses. Like the teachers, the school officers were asked to write a few paragraphs indicating the system's strengths and weaknesses. Content analysis of a random sample of 39 questionnaires from principals and assistant principals (representing 21% of the total of 137 responding) disclosed these six major areas of concern:

1. Physical Plant. About one third of the items dealt with problems in the physical plant, such as antiquated, overcrowded buildings and classrooms. Principals complained of lack of involvement in planning of new schools. Buildings were too small even before they opened. Principals stressed the need for increased pupil personnel services, especially for more counselors, psychologists and nurses. They asked for help in dealing with "a mountain of paperwork." Some asked for additional assistant principals, more wanted additional clerical and secretarial help. In all, 39 percent

of the responses requested increased professional and nonprofessional help.

2. Finance. Most of the principals summed up financial practices as "too little, too late." Flaws in the system traceable to finances included low salaries, inadequate supplies and equipment, a high pupil-teacher ratio. Some principals commented that purchasing, accounts and record-keeping were cumbersome and poorly managed.

3. Central Office and Board of Education. A major complaint of the principals was their perceived lack of support by the Board and central offices. Some gave low marks to supervisory staff quality. There was criticism of promotions for supervisors before they had proven themselves in their current positions.

4. Community and Home. The single greatest complaint regarded undue pressure from groups, putting unwarranted demands on the schools. This, together with a "poor press," underscored the need for a public relations officer to provide a better balanced portrait of the schools.

5. Curriculum and Innovation. Specific mention was made of the need for curriculum change, particularly for improved programs for the gifted, the vocational students and the pre-schoolers. Though innovation was not a target for criticism, its planning and implementation were considered "inept." Many principals commented on poor follow-through for several action projects which had been initiated but dropped before fully tested.

6. Teachers and Staff Members. Several principals questioned teacher competency, assignment procedures and professional commitment. The uncertainties about the areas of collective bargaining with teachers were alluded to by some principals.

While the questionnaire requested that both strengths and weaknesses be listed, the principals, like the teachers, tended to limit their comments to problems. The strengths were generally ignored.

APPENDIX C

Demographic Mapping of the District and Its Schools[1/]

One of the task forces, under the direction of an urban geographer, undertook an analysis of important demographic characteristics of the District, its population, schools and resources. Two separate analyses were made: one of the community and another of the schools. The analyses and the relationships between the two sets of factors are set forth to assist in future planning.

The task of mapping demographic patterns in Washington is a complicated one. For one thing, the city is divided into more than 100 separate sub-areas, called census tracts. For each of these areas, over 300 separate items of information are available. The demographer may either make 300 separate maps -- each one of which will show the variation of one fact over Washington's landscape (as, in fact, appears in the two maps in Chapter 3) or he can choose a small number of these data and show only a portion of the pattern prevailing in Washington. Neither alternative is satisfactory: 300 separate maps would be confusing and a few sample maps provide inadequate information.

To cope with the problem, the task force used a technique called "factor analysis" and "factor rotation," which takes a large number of characteristics and combines them into clusters, called "factors." These factors or clusters are then mapped to reveal much about the structure of the city. Each factor, as then mapped, is a cluster of characteristics that describes neighborhoods in Washington, D. C..

The statistical technique has the further advantage in that Factor I is "more important" in explaining the variations in District characteristics than is Factor II, and so on. Thus, the technique not only replaces a complicated mass of information about characteristics with simpler patterns, but these patterns can then be reported in the order of their "explanatory power." Each map may be regarded as explaining more of the variance among characteristics than those which follow it.

The Demographic Study of the District

A total of 40 variables -- population and housing characteristics taken from the 1960 Census of the United States of America and supplemented by material from the National Capitol Planning Commission and U. S. Census Bureau data for 1965 -- was subjected to factor analysis. From this analysis, nine factors or clusters emerged which explain 81 percent of the variance in the information matrix. Table C-1 lists the 40 variables.

The first set of maps presents the information in terms of standard deviations. A particular census tract which varies or differs from the average or mean on that characteristic can be easily picked out by the amount of deviation. Thus, when a census tract is More than 2.0 Standard Deviations from the Mean, it is above the 97.7th percentile. The percentiles represented by the standard deviations used in the mapping are as follows:

1/ Dr. George W. Carey prepared the reports on which this section is based.

More than 2.0	Standard Deviations	-- Above 97.7 percentile	
1.5 to 2.0	"	"	-- Between 93.3 and 97.7 percentile
1.0 to 1.5	"	"	-- Between 84.1 and 93.3 "
-1.0 to -1.5	"	"	-- Between 15.9 and 6.7 "
-1.5 to -2.0	"	"	-- Between 6.7 and 2.3 "
Less than -2.0	"	"	-- Below 2.3 "

Table C-1

Demographic Variables For Factor Analysis

X_1 = Density, 1960
X_2 = Density, 1965
X_3 = % Negro, 1960
X_4 = % Negro, 1965
X_5 = % Population Change, 1960-65
X_6 = % Negro Population Change, 1960-65
X_7 = % Population 1960 in Households
X_8 = % Population Households in 1960 Head of Household
X_9 = % Head of Households Primary Family Head
X_{10} = % Head of Households Primary Individuals
X_{11} = % Population Households 1960 which are Wives of Head
X_{12} = % 1960 Population Household Children under 18
X_{13} = % 1960 Population Household Other Relative of Head
X_{14} = % 1960 Population Household Nonrelative of Head
X_{15} = Population per Household
X_{16} = % 1960 Population Married Couples
X_{17} = Median School Years Completed, 1960
X_{18} = % Household Population 1960 in Same House as 1955
X_{19} = % Household Population 1960 in Other House of the Same City as 1955
X_{20} = % Household Population 1960 Moved to Washington since 1955 from the Washington S.M.S.A.
X_{21} = % Household Population 1960 entered since 1955 from the North and West
X_{22} = % Household Population 1960 entered since 1955 from the South
X_{23} = Median Family Income, 1960
X_{24} = Median Age White Male, 1960
X_{25} = Median Age White Female, 1960
X_{26} = Median Age Negro Male, 1960
X_{27} = Median Age Negro Female, 1960
X_{28} = % Household Population 1960 Negro Separated
X_{29} = % Household Population 1960 Negro Widowed
X_{30} = % Household Population 1960 Negro Divorced
X_{31} = % Male Unemployed, 1960
X_{32} = % Female Unemployed, 1960
X_{33} = % Married Working Mothers, 1960
X_{34} = % Employed in Government Work, 1960
X_{35} = % Housing Vacancies Available, 1960
X_{36} = % Housing Vacancies Unused, 1960
X_{37} = % Housing Units Deteriorating, 1960
X_{38} = % Housing Units Dilapidated, 1960
X_{39} = Persons Per Room Exceed One, 1960
X_{40} = Median Gross Rent, 1960

Thus, a census tract which is "more than 2.0 standard deviations" is very "strong" or has a good deal of whatever is described by the particular factor; the tract which is "less than -2.0" is very light or weak in that factor. A tract which was "more than 2.0" with respect to Factor I would have considerable run-down housing located in it; were it "less than -2.0" it would have very little or no run-down housing.

Eight maps follow which describe significant characteristics in the District. A ninth factor is concerned with schools and is not included in this set of maps since educational factors are treated in the second analysis. The base map on which all of the factor mapping is imposed contains a heavy line surrounding certain census areas; these areas have a population which is 90 percent or more Negro. Thus, it is possible to relate the factors to those areas of the city in which Negroes are concentrated.

Demographic Factor I - Deteriorating Housing Factor (27% of variance). The tracts "strong" in Factor I are areas which have many deteriorating, dilapidated or vacant housing units, in which there are relatively few persons engaged in government work. Such areas are concentrated in the core of the District and are largely absent from the city's perimeters. Urban geographers describe such areas as "neighborhoods of physical and functional blight." That is, there are many buildings which are physically run-down and ones which are vacant; they do not function. Vacancies often occur because the socio-economic characteristics of the neighborhood are undergoing change and, in the turnover of population, large numbers of empty roons ensue. Vacancy rate may also be related to physical blight; buildings which are awaiting demolition and renewal often stand vacant. In addition, there are vacant stores. According to the 1960-65 data used here, the full effects of this blight have not crossed the boundary at 14th Street, N. W., but indications are that it will, unless measures are taken to arrest it.

Demographic Factor II - Transient and Central Business District (18% of the variance). Many heads of households and primary individuals are found in these tracts but relatively low numbers of people per household and large vacancy rates. This implies a transient occupance and, when mapped, describes the portion of the District characterized by hotels and rooming houses. This factor is strong in the commercial heart of Washington, centered around accommodations for transients, visitors and business people. Only in two tracts is there overlap with the blighted area but the spreading patterns of functional, economic and physical blight are clearly on the fringes of this central business district and may soon penetrate it. Not one single tract within the area that is 90 percent or more Negro manifests characteristics of the central business activity of the nation's capital -- the whole factor region lies outside the predominantly Negro tracts.

Demographic Factor III - Negro Women, Divorced or Widowed or Not Living In Own Household (12% of variance). Tracts which are strong in this factor are identified by the presence of special types of Negro families. Negro women in these tracts are relatively older than the men and include a large percentage of divorced and widowed persons. The map discloses such tracts in Georgetown and along Massachusetts Avenue, which suggests that many are live-in servants. These findings are consistent with similar studies in Manhattan.

Demographic Factor IV - Higher Education Institutions (6% of the variance). These census tracts include ones where relatively fewer people reside in the households, whose previous residence in 1955 was out of the capital district. Tracts with high scores on this factor are the sites of Washington's important higher educational, cultural and scientific institutions. Some of these institutions and their student populations are located in or near poverty areas.

Demographic Factor V - Poverty Areas (6% of the variance). Tracts which are strong in this factor show a poverty Negro syndrome: low median family income, low median gross rents, low number of years of schooling completed, crowded dwellings and many separated families. These tracts tend to have individuals who have resided in Washington since 1955, and have low employment rates for both males and females. These are areas where conditions of blight, urban poverty, separated families and economic depression tend to converge.

Demographic Factor VI - Negro Population Growth (4% of the variance). This map indicates the tracts which manifest an increasing percentage of Negro population in the period from 1960-1965. While many such tracts are found at the central core of the District, there are a number of areas on the perimeter which show Negro population growth. Many of the latter tracts are middle-income areas, suggesting that the Negro middle-class is moving toward the District's fringes. If this trend continues, the distinction between the center and the perimeter of the District will be socio-economic, rather than racial.

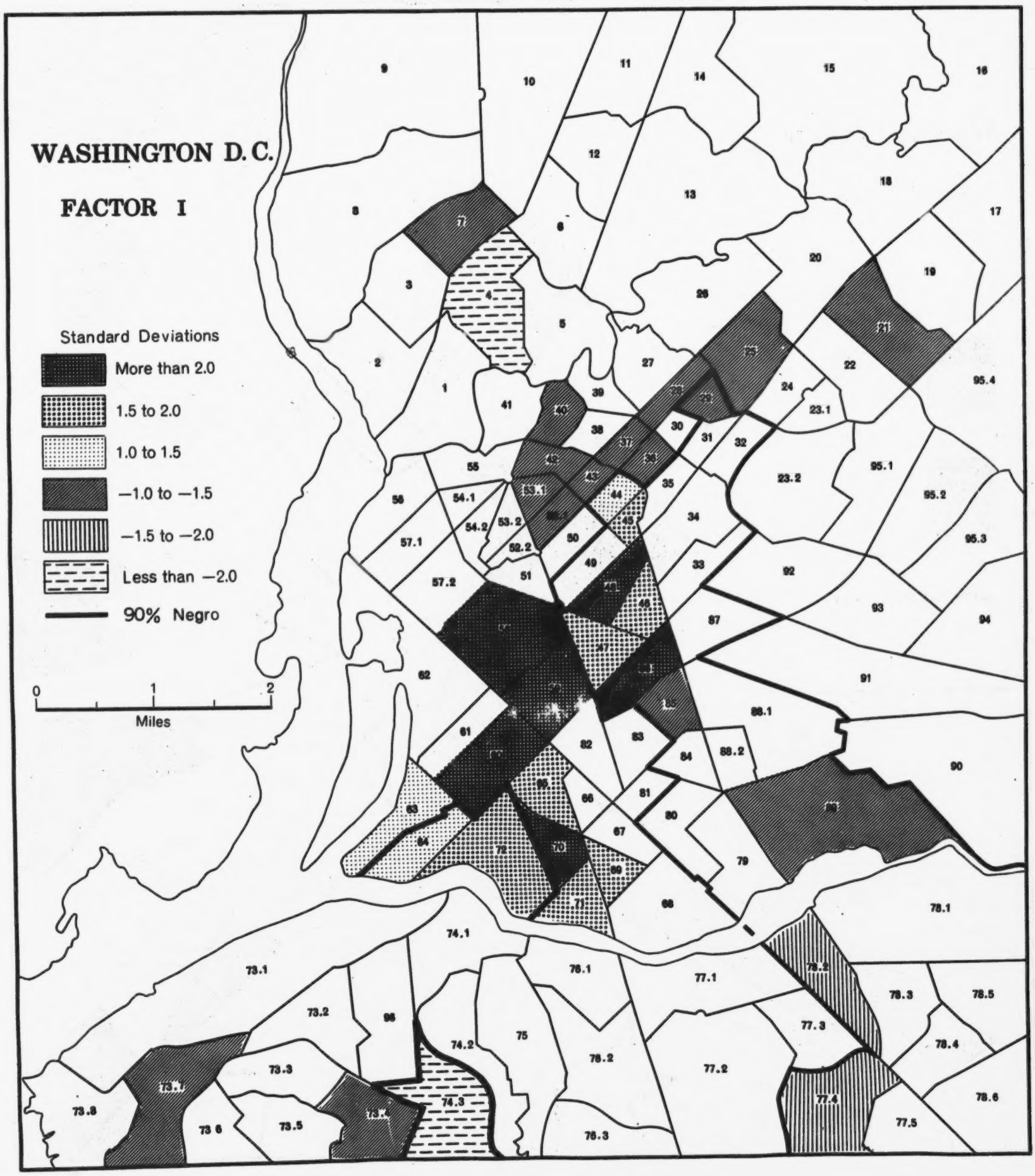
Demographic Factor VII - Population Growth (4% of the variance). This factor indicates areas in which there has been the greatest population change between 1960-1965. It is indicative of areas in which young families live and corresponds with an area of high transiency.

Demographic Factor VIII - Children Under 18 (3% of the variance). This factor is not mapped in this section but is further analyzed in the discussion of educational factors which follows.

Demographic Factor IX - Older White Residents (3% of variance). This factor describes census tracts where older white individuals, especially females, live in high density surroundings. The tracts are often in neighborhoods which have become almost exclusively Negro, suggesting residual populations of older white persons rigidly clinging to their former residences.

Summary. Factor I pinpoints the area which is a core of urban blight, adjacent to Factor II, the central business district of the city. Factor III shows a pattern of widowed and divorced Negro women, many either commuting or live-in servants. Factor IV shows that scattered throughout the District in areas some of which are blighted and others not, are educational and cultural institutions with student populations that might serve to improve the neighborhoods. Factor V shows a poverty-stricken population, mainly Negro, moving into former all-white areas with the inevitable demographic stress on the facilities of these areas, including the schools. These five factors all tend to interact in the complicated arena of the central business district of Washington and its environs.

While the first five factors indicate stress in the center of the city, Factor VI shows a developing middle-class Negro population in the city's perimeter. This Negro middle-class population gathered in decent housing at the perimeter of the city might exercise leadership in shaping the affairs of Washington. A detailed examination of the statistics behind this map, however, suggests that public housing policy has not necessarily served the best interests of the entire community. In areas lying between the Capitol Mall and the rivers, urban renewal, slum clearance and rebuilding has proceeded in ways which exclude poorer Negro families from their former residences and has placed concentrations of public housing development for Negro families in plots that adjoin high-rise, semi-luxury single and small family white developments. The consequence has been that schools serving this kind of community tend to have primarily Negro children from low-income families. Thus there are segregated schools in neighborhoods where the adult population is nominally integrated.


WASHINGTON D.C.
FACTOR I
Standard Deviations
More than 2.0
1.5 to 2.0
1.0 to 1.5
−1.0 to −1.5
−1.5 to −2.0
Less than −2.0
90% Negro
0
1
2
Miles

WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR II

Standard Deviations

- More than 2.0
- 1.5 to 2.0
- 1.0 to 1.5
- −1.0 to −1.5
- −1.5 to −2.0

90% Negro

0 1 2

Miles

WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR III

Standard Deviations

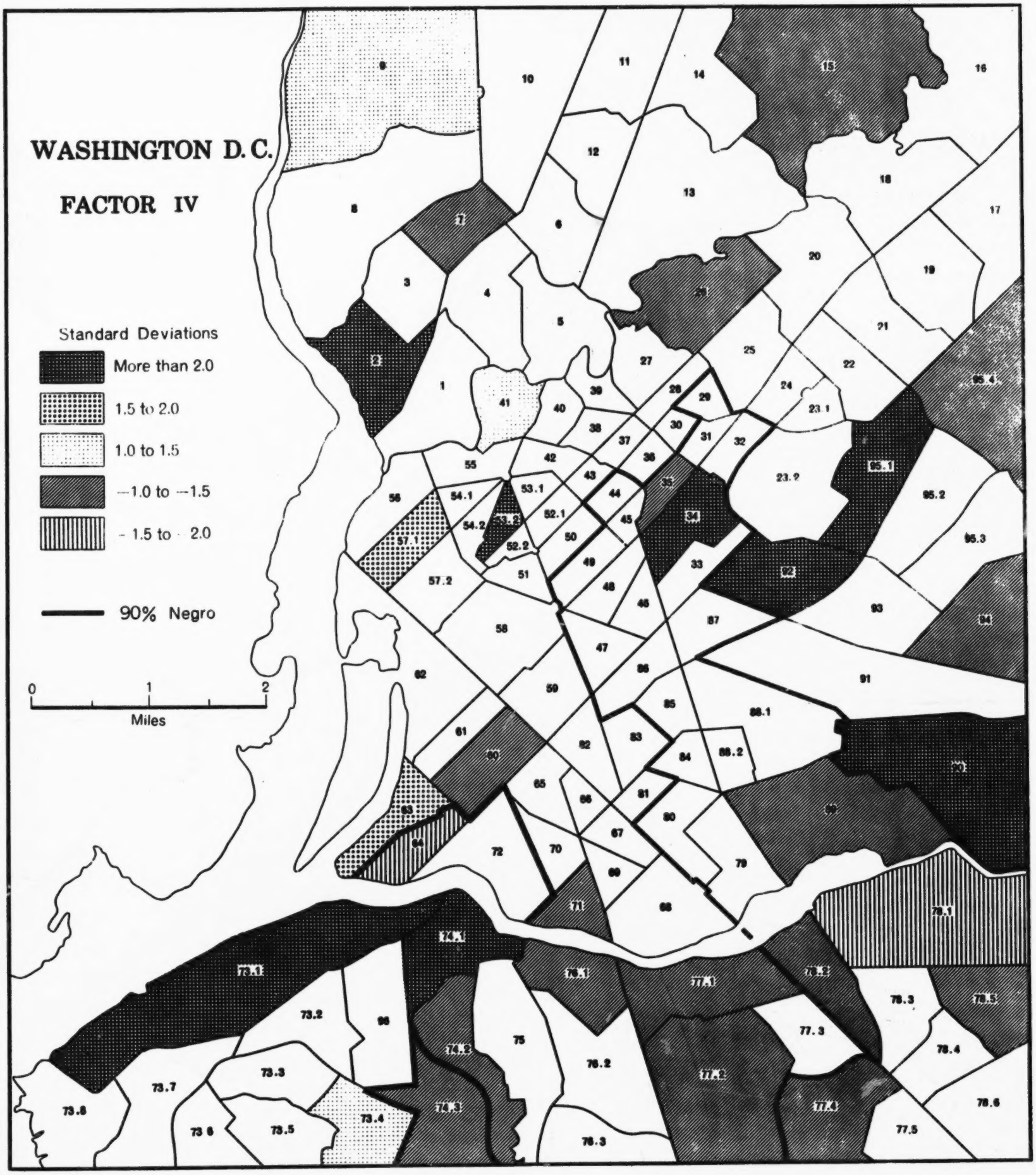
- More than 2.0
- 1.5 to 2.0
- 1.0 to 1.5
- −1.0 to −1.5
- −1.5 to −2.0

90% Negro

0 1 2
Miles

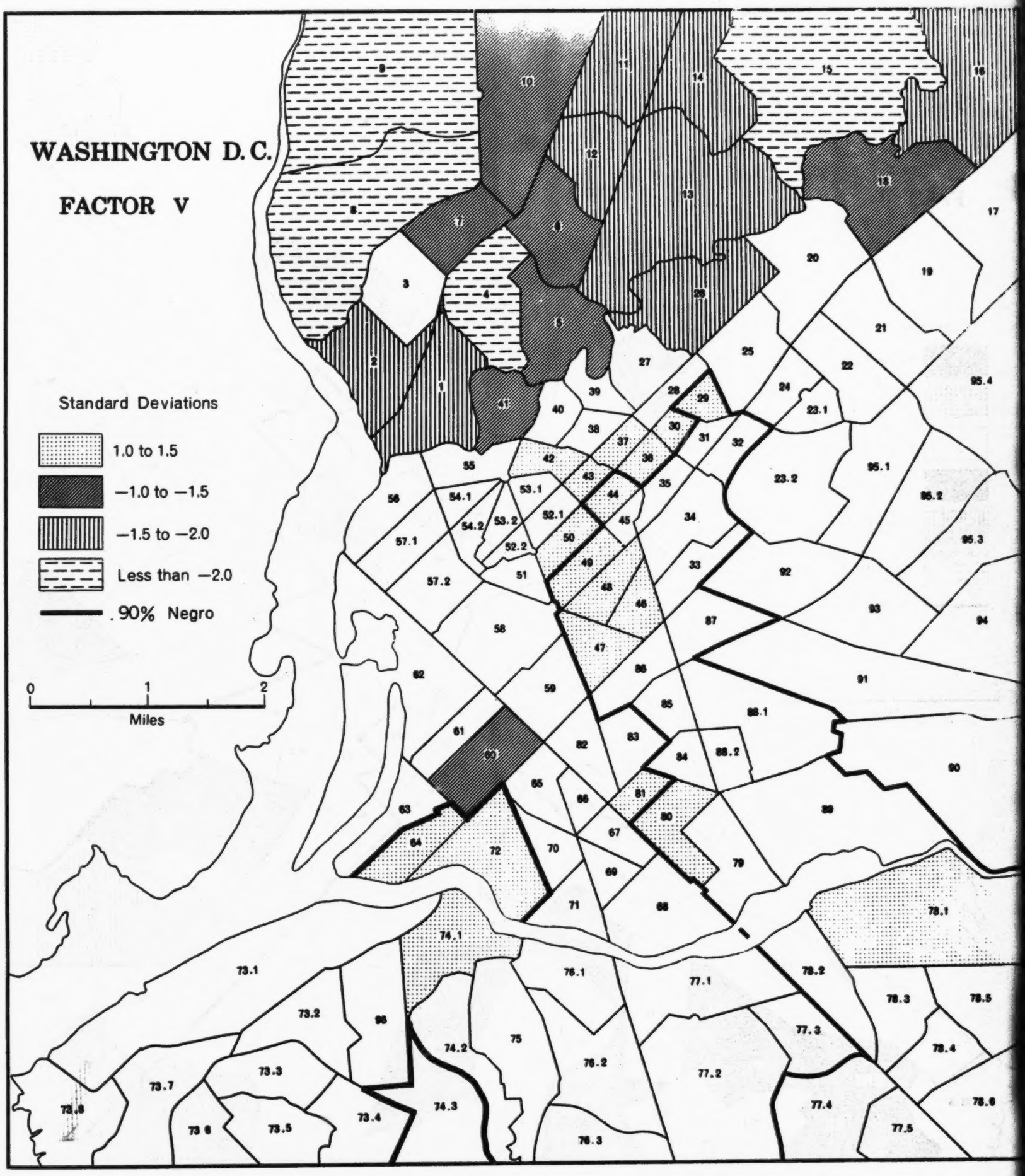
WASHINGTON D. C.

FACTOR IV



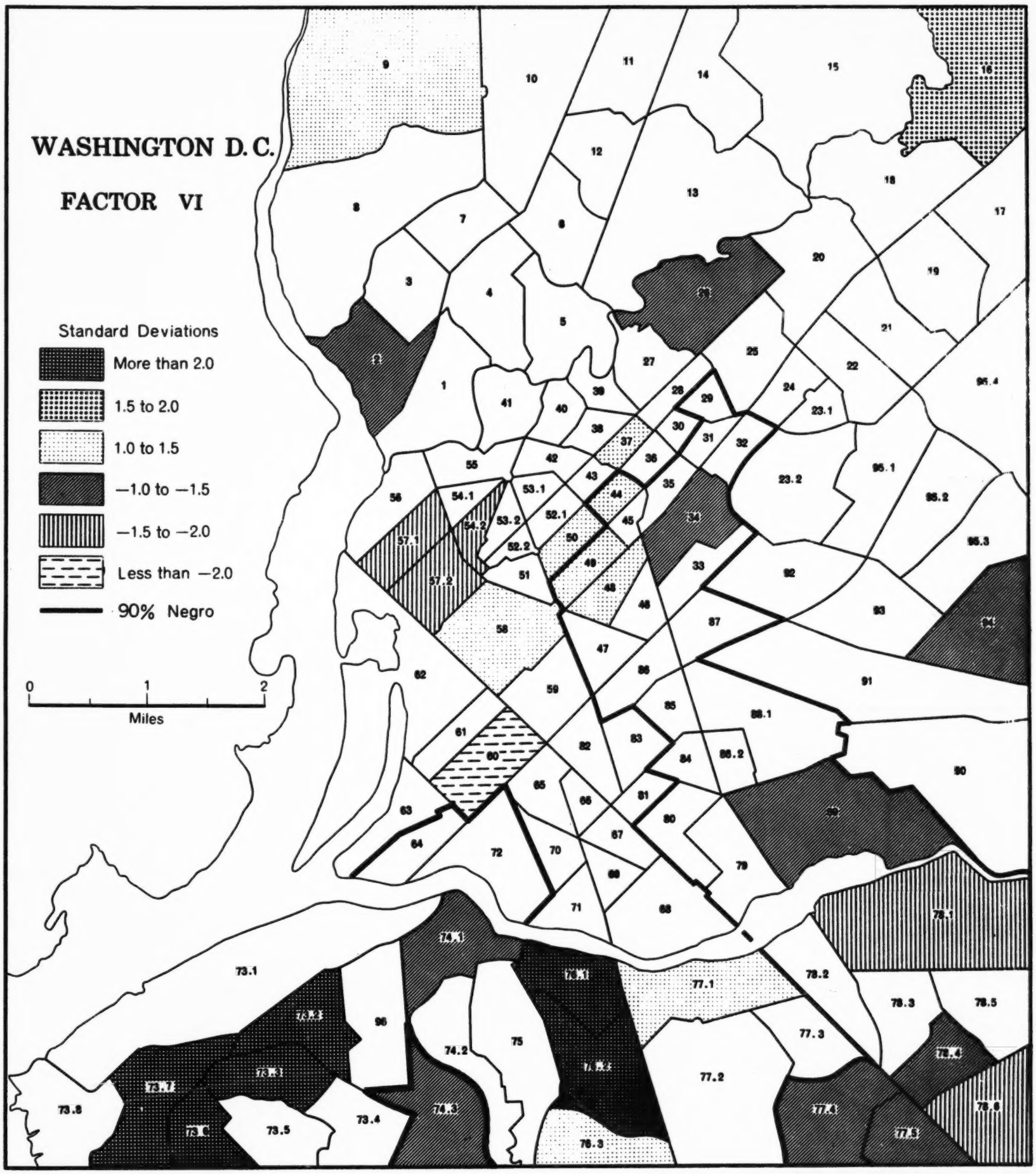
WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR V



WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR VI



WASHINGTON D.C.

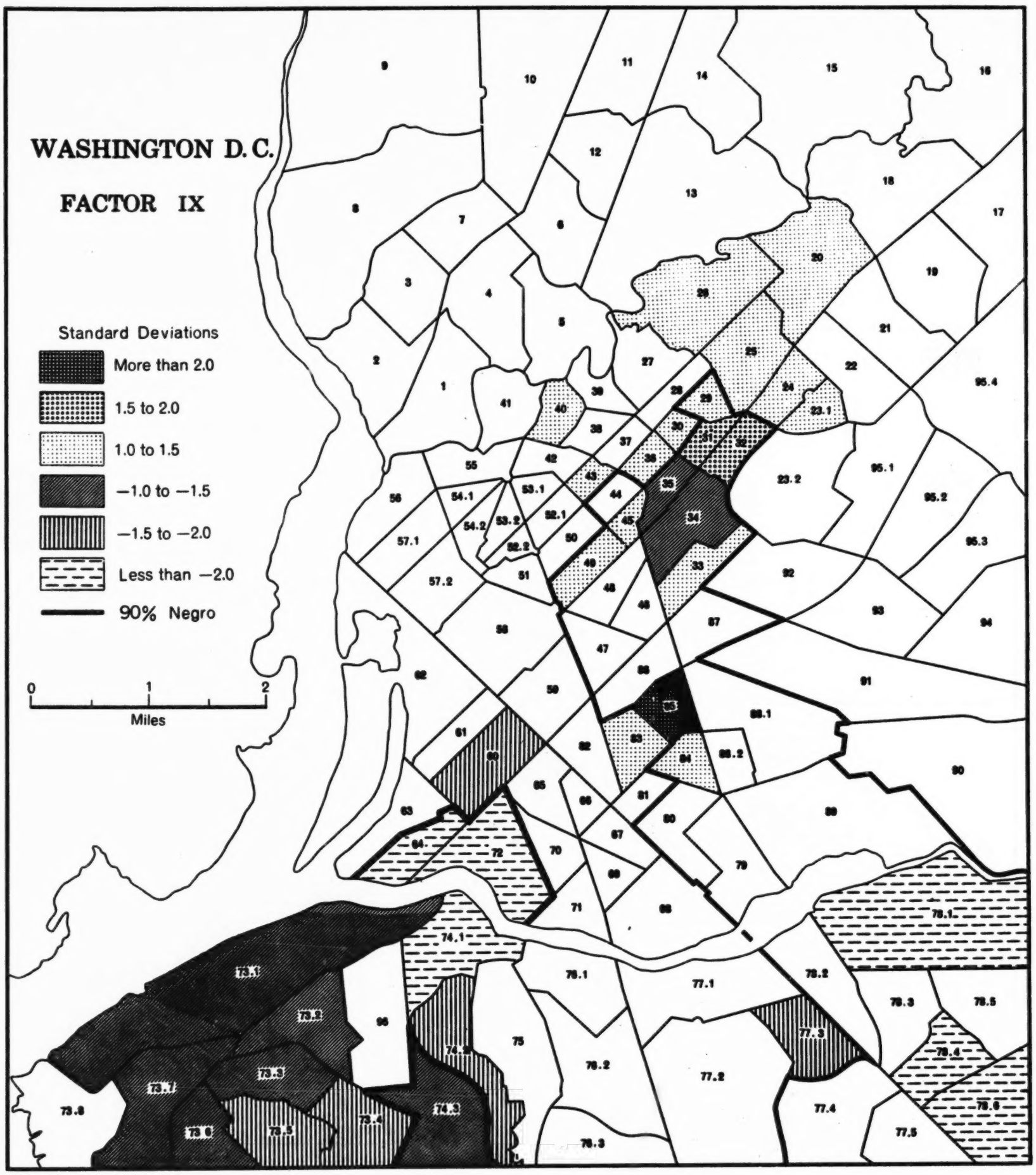
FACTOR VII

Standard Deviations

- More than 2.0
- 1.5 to 2.0
- 1.0 to 1.5
- −1.0 to −1.5
- −1.5 to −2.0
- Less than −2.0
- 90% Negro

0 1 2

Miles


WASHINGTON D.C.
FACTOR IX
Standard Deviations
More than 2.0
1.5 to 2.0
1.0 to 1.5
−1.0 to −1.5
−1.5 to −2.0
Less than −2.0
90% Negro
0
1
2
Miles

The mapping indicates that the District has evolved into a series of more or less homogeneous areas, no one of which serves its children adequately. The demographic study suggests that two broad strategies are available, both requiring subdivision of the community's responsibility for its schools. One is to divide the city along lines of relatively homogeneous neighborhoods, a division which would tend to institutionalize the poverty and ghetto areas. The second alternative would be to divide the city on a more or less wedge-shaped basis, the point of the wedge at the city center and its edge at the city limits. This arrangement would have the advantage of offering in each sub-district a fuller array of the types of population in Washington and therefore, the educational opportunity, implicit in urban living, to become accustomed to the full range of the human possibility and actuality present in an interdependent society.

Study of Educational Factors in Elementary Schools

Data were collected for 132 public elementary schools -- the total number in the District with the exception of Military Road School (a special school for the handicapped); Woodridge (for which certain data were unobtainable); and six annexes (which were combined with the parent schools). Table C-2 lists the 32 variables used in the study of the elementary schools. Twenty variables describe the teachers, 8 the physical facilities of the schools and 4 the pupils enrolled at the school. The data came from questionnaires administered teachers, official school records, related census data and material used for ranking schools for Impact Aid Funds.

Each row in the 32 x 132 data matrix describes a school. Table C-3 lists the 61 correlations which were in excess of ± .4. By means of a technique of factor analysis with varimax rotation of factors, the 32 variables were reduced to 8 factors accounting for 72.5 percent of the variance in the intercorrelation matrix. Unlike the original 32 variables which were complexly intercorrelated, these factors are uncorrelated.

The maps are drawn somewhat differently from the earlier ones. The census tracts which contain schools which are above the 90th percentile and those between the 80th and 90th percentile on the particular factor are mapped. Percentiles, rather than standard deviations, are used. The census tracts with a population which is 90% or more Negro is again indicated with the dark "isoline."

Educational Factor I - School Setting and Neighborhood (15.7% of the variance). The cluster of characteristics that comprise this factor include: the percent of white pupils, adjustment mean income of pupils' families, mean number of years of education of pupils' parents, sixth grade reading scores and percent of teachers whose own parents were in the middle-income brackets. The percentage of Negro teachers in such schools is very small. The schools located in these census tracts are predominantly white, pupil and staff, and middle-class.

Educational Factor II - Teacher Status and Experience Factor (15.3% of the variance). This factor represents a firm core of career teachers, tending to be long-time residents of the District, raised in or near D. C. with permanent status and many years experience in Washington's schools (but with some local movement from school to school, probably through seniority). There is little turnover in these schools and it is likely that many teach until they retire.

Educational Factor III - School Building Factor (10% of the variance). This map indicates census tracts where the newest buildings or most recent additions are located, and where the number of classrooms and building amenities are the greatest. Areas which are strongest on this factor are located within the central core, predominantly Negro tracts.

Table C-2

32 Variables Used in Study of Elementary Schools

Variable Identification Numbers	
	4 Variables Describing the Pupils Enrolled at the School
1	Percent white
20	Median family income
21	Median years of education of parents
32	6th grade reading scores
	8 Variables Describing Physical Facilities of the Schools
2	Pupil/teacher ratio
27	Age of school building
28	Date of latest addition
23	Ratio, capacity to enrollment (the larger the value, the more space available)
29	Number of classrooms
30	Number of amenities
31	Number of substandard facilities
22	Attendance as a percent of enrollment
	20 Variables Describing Teachers
5	Perdent under 40 years of age
12	Percent male
13	Percent Negro
3	Percent married
4	Percent with school-age children
19	Number with school-age children in D. C. public schools, compared to the number with school-age children
8	Percent raised in the South (including D. C.)
6	Percent raised in D. C.
7	Percent raised outside D. C. but in the South
10	Percent raised on a farm
9	Percent raised in towns of more than 10,000 people
11	Percent reporting parents' income in upper one-half of community
17	Percent with bachelor's degree
18	Percent with master's degree
14	Percent permanent teachers
15	Percent probationary teachers
16	Percent temporary teachers
24	Years experience at present school
25	Years experience in D. C. public school system
26	Total years teaching experience

Table C-3

Correlations of ± .40

X_{14}	X_{16}	Percent permanent teachers, percent temporary teachers	-.99
X_1	X_{13}	Percent white pupils, percent Negro teachers	-.89
X_1	X_{20}	Percent white pupils, adjusted median income of pupils' families	.81
X_1	X_{20}	Percent white pupils, median sixth grade reading scores	.80
X_{20}	X_{32}	Adjusted median income of pupils' families, median sixth grade reading scores	.79
X_{13}	X_{20}	Percent Negro teachers, adjusted median income of pupils' families	-.79
X_{28}	X_{29}	Date of latest addition, number of classrooms	.78
X_{20}	X_{21}	Adjusted median income of pupils' families, median years education of pupils' parents	.77
X_{27}	X_{28}	Age of building, date of latest addition	-.77
X_{13}	X_{32}	Percent Negro teachers, median sixth grade reading scores	-.76
X_2	X_{23}	Pupil/teacher ratio, capacity/enrollment ratio	-.73
X_{15}	X_{17}	Percent probationary teachers, percent teachers whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree	.71
X_5	X_{26}	Percent teachers 40 years, median total years teaching experience	-.71
X_{14}	X_{25}	Percent permanent teachers, median years experience in D. C. system	.68
X_{27}	X_{29}	Age of building, number of classrooms	-.67
X_{17}	X_{25}	Percent temporary teachers, median years experience in D. C. system	-.66
X_{21}	X_{32}	Median years education of pupils' parents, median sixth grade reading scores	.63
X_{14}	X_{26}	Percent permanent teachers, median total years teaching experience	.62
X_1	X_{21}	Percent white pupils, median years education of pupils' parents	.62
X_{13}	X_{21}	Percent Negro teachers, median years education of pupils' parents	-.62

X_{29}	X_{30}	Number of classrooms, number of amenities	.59
X_{16}	X_{26}	Percent temporary teachers, median total years teaching experience	-.59
X_5	X_{25}	Percent teachers 40 years old, median years experience in D. C. system	-.59
X_6	X_8	Percent teachers raised in or near D. C., percent raised in South	.58
X_6	X_{16}	Percent teachers raised in or near D. C., percent temporary teachers	-.58
X_6	X_{14}	Percent teachers raised in or near D. C., percent permanent teachers	.57
X_{28}	X_{30}	Date of latest addition, number of amenities	.55
X_7	X_8	Percent teachers raised outside D. C. but in South, percent raised in South	.53
X_6	X_9	Percent teachers raised in or near D. C., percent raised in towns 10,000	.53
X_5	X_7	Percent teachers under 40 years old, percent raised outside D. C. but in South	.52
X_{27}	X_{30}	Age of building, number of amenities	-.52
X_5	X_{20}	Percent teachers under 40 years old, adjusted median income of pupils' families	-.48
X_{14}	X_{17}	Percent permanent teachers, percent teachers whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree	-.47
X_{17}	X_{26}	Percent teachers whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree, median total years teaching experience	-.46
X_2	X_{29}	Pupil/teacher ratio, number of classrooms	.45
X_6	X_{25}	Percent teachers raised in or near D. C., median years experience in D. C. system	.45
X_5	X_{17}	Percent teachers under 40 years old, percent whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree	.45
X_{21}	X_{22}	Median years education of parents, attendance as percent of enrollment	.45
X_5	X_{14}	Percent teachers under 40 years old, percent permanent teachers	-.45
X_{17}	X_{25}	Percent teachers whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree, median years experience in D. C. system	-.45

X_7	X_{13}	Percent teachers raised outside D. C. but in South, percent Negro teachers	.44
X_7	X_{20}	Percent teachers raised outside D. C. but in South, adjusted median income of pupils' families	-.44
X_{23}	X_{29}	Ratio, capacity to enrollment, number of classrooms	-.44
X_4	X_8	Percent teachers with school-age children, percent raised in South	.43
X_3	X_8	Percent teachers married, percent raised in South	.43
X_5	X_{32}	Percent teachers under 40 years old, 6th grade reading scores	-.43
X_{15}	X_{26}	Percent probationary teachers, median total years teaching experience	-.43
X_1	X_5	Percent white pupils, percent teachers under 40 years old	-.43
X_5	X_{16}	Percent teachers under 40 years old, percent temporary teachers	.42
X_5	X_{13}	Percent teachers under 40 years old, percent Negro teachers	.42
X_1	X_{11}	Percent white pupils, percent teachers with parent in high income bracket	.42
X_7	X_{17}	Percent teachers raised outside D. C. but in South, percent whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree	.41
X_{16}	X_{17}	Percent temporary teachers, percent whose highest degree is the bachelor's degree	.41
X_{11}	X_{21}	Percent teachers with parents in high income bracket, median years education of pupils' parents	.41
X_3	X_4	Percent teachers married, percent with school-age children	.41
X_{23}	X_{31}	Ratio, capacity to enrollment, number substandard facilities	-.41
X_{11}	X_{13}	Percent teachers with parents in high income bracket, percent Negro teachers	-.41
X_{15}	X_{25}	Percent probationary teachers, median years experience in D. C. system	-.41
X_{11}	X_{20}	Percent teachers with parents in high income bracket, adjusted median income of pupils' families	.40
X_1	X_{23}	Percent white pupils, ratio of capacity to enrollment	.40
X_{23}	X_{28}	Ratio of capacity to enrollment, date of latest addition	-.40

Educational Factor IV - Married Teacher Factor (10% of the variance). This map indicates the schools which have a high proportion of teachers who are married, were raised in the South or are natives of Washington, came from towns with populations over 10,000 and have school-age children of their own.

Educational Factor V - School Utilization Factor (8% of the variance). This factor deals with the capacity/enrollment ratio of the building, the pupil/teacher ratio and the number of sub-standard facilities. The map shows those areas where best ratios exist in terms of crowding and utilization. There are several reasons why some buildings are not used to capacity. Sometimes they are substandard and are scheduled to be replaced or closed. In some instances, there is under-utilization due to rapid population change. The neighborhood school policy has resulted in some over- and under-utilization

Educational Factor VI - Teacher "Rural" Background Factor (8% of the variance). This factor deals chiefly with whether the teachers in the school came from a farm or rural background rather than an urban environment. The map shows schools which presumably have greater numbers of teachers who were raised on a farm or in small towns.

Educational Factor VII - Academic Preparation Factor (5% of the variance). This factor indicates the teachers with bachelor's degrees only and the absence of master's degrees or additional preparation. The map indicates the schools where teachers with the fewest master's degrees are located.

Educational Factor VIII - Attendance Rates (5% of the variance). This factor deals primarily with attendance as a percent of enrollment and indicates schools which have poorer attendance than others. It suggests interesting contrasts since the tracts where these schools are located are found in Northwest area as well as the inner core.

Interrelationships of Demographic and Educational Factors

The interrelationships between the two sets of factors -- community demographic and educational -- are found in Table C-4 below.

Table C-4

Significant Contingency Coefficients between Demographic ..... and Educational Factors.

Demographic Factors	Educational Factors I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
I				-.200			.424##	.408##
II	.237**		-.343##			.259#		
III			-.219*		-.288#			
IV			-.184	-.184				
V		-.556##						
VI				-.245**			.230*	.226*
VII						-.295##		
VIII		-.287#					.276#	.290#
IX								

* Significant at the .02 level
** " " " .01 "
\# " " " .005 "
\#\# " " " .001 "

WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR E I

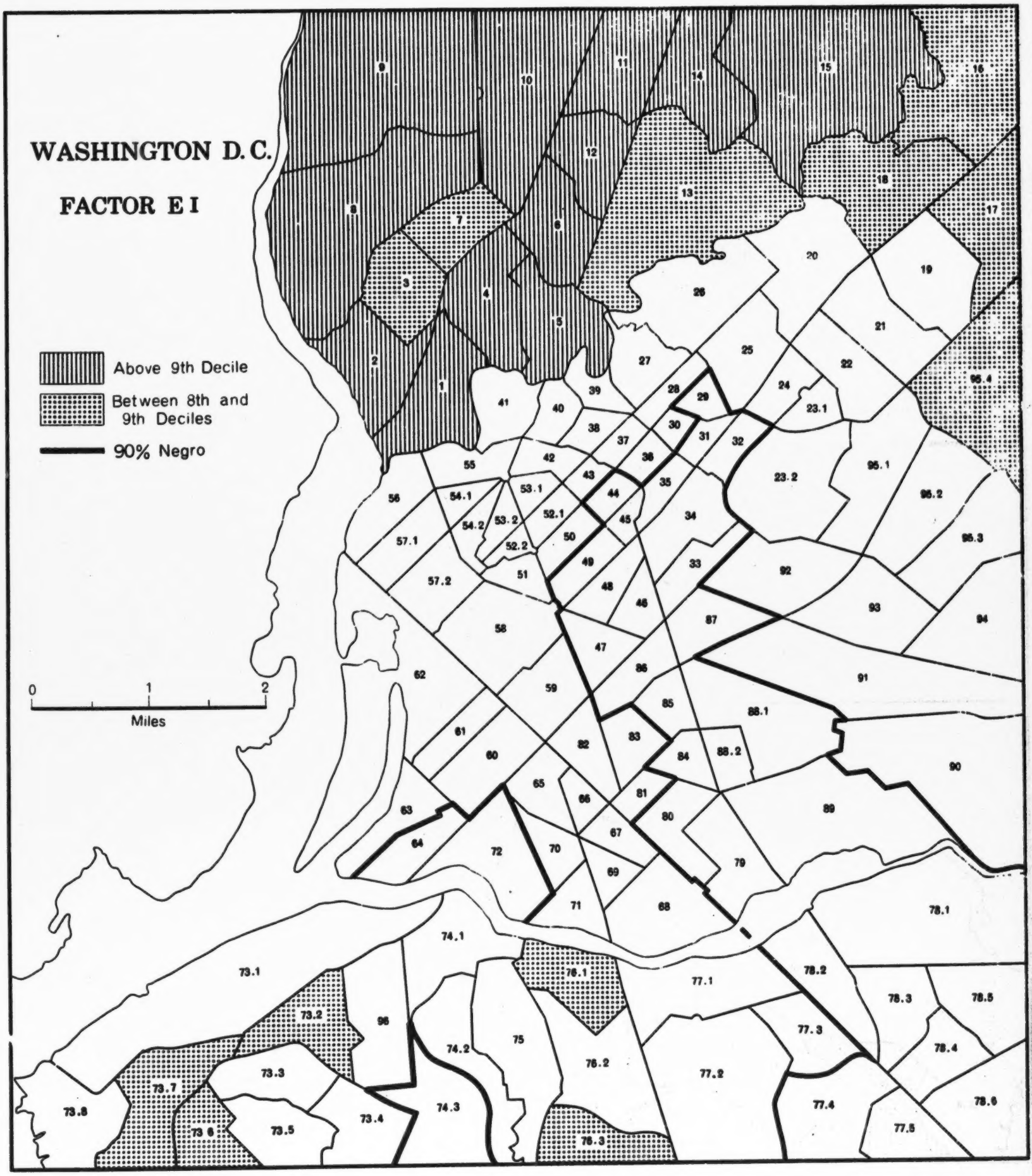
Above 9th Decile

Between 8th and 9th Deciles

90% Negro

0 1 2

Miles



WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR E II

Above 9th Decile

Between 8th and 9th Deciles

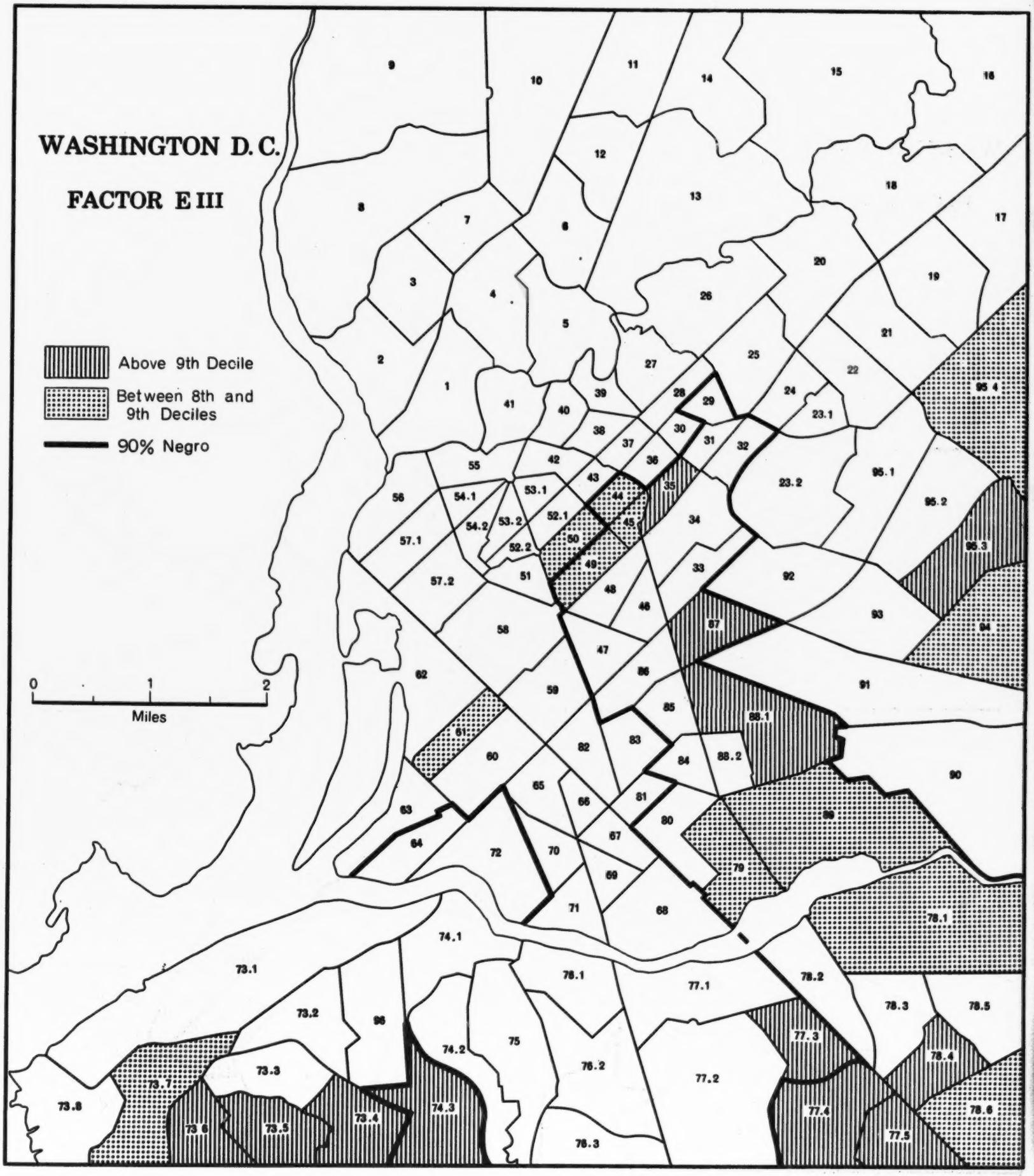
90% Negro

0 1 2

Miles

WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR E III



WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR E IV

Above 9th Decile

Between 8th and 9th Deciles

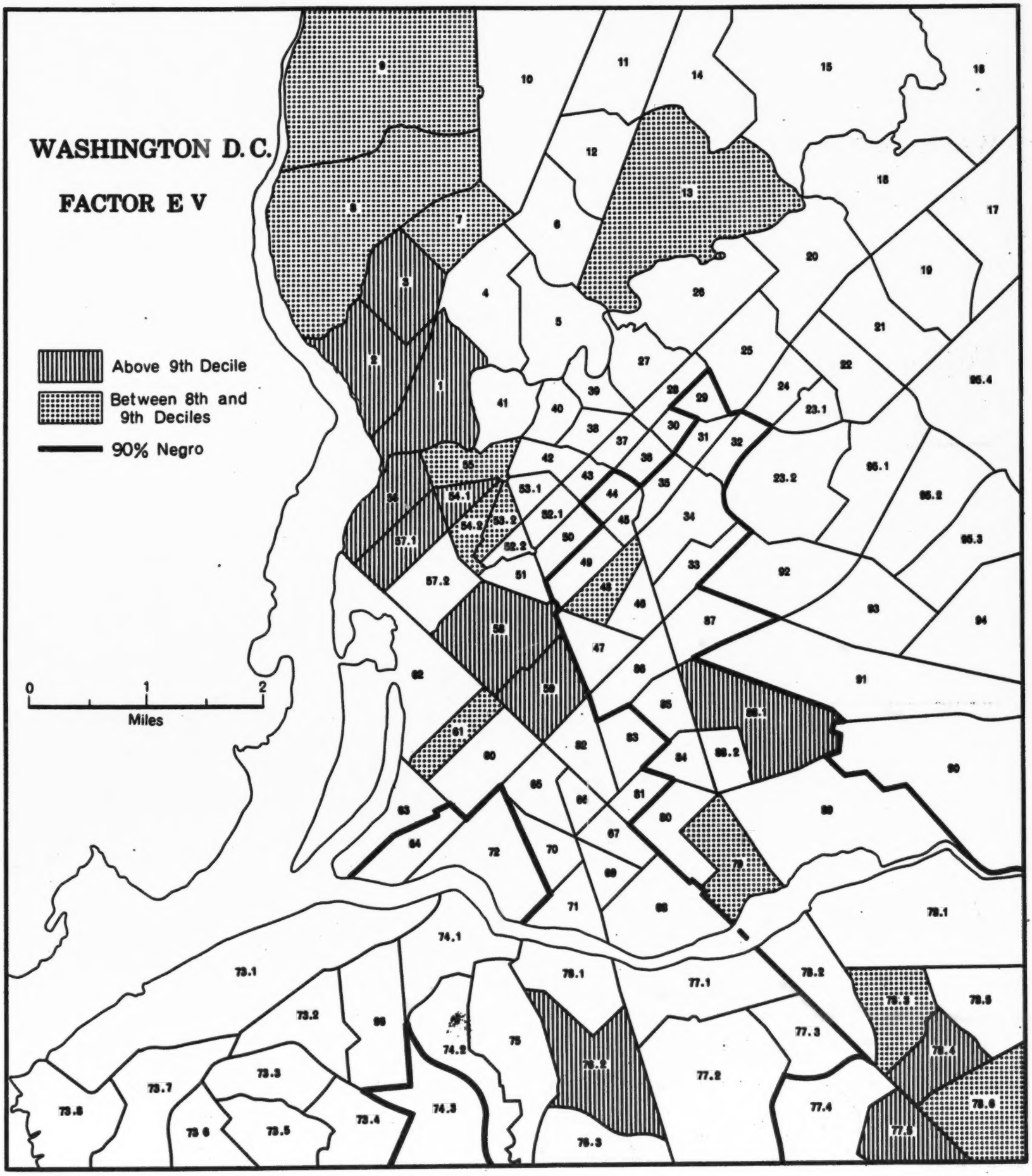
90% Negro

0 1 2

Miles

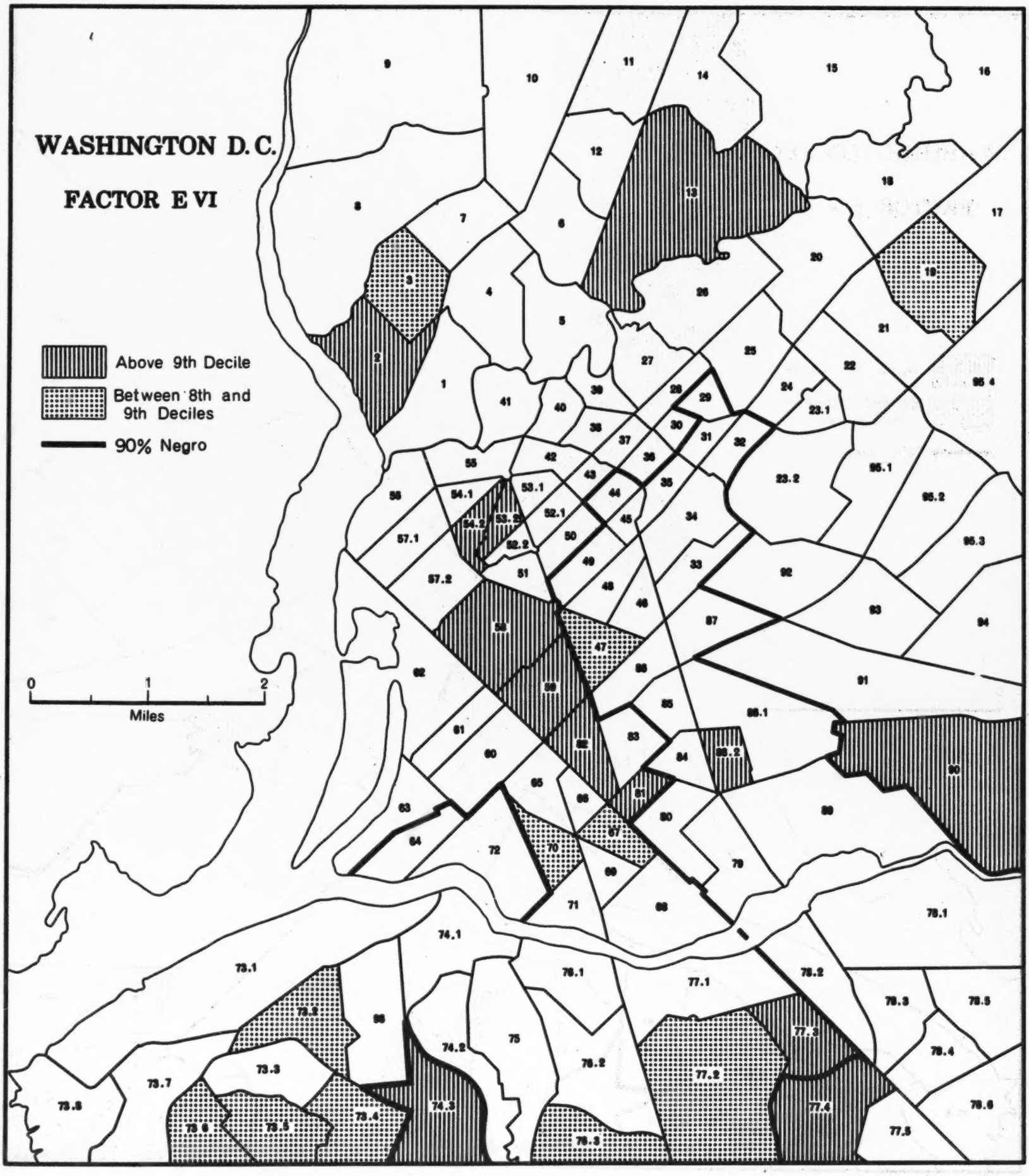
WASHINGTON D.C.

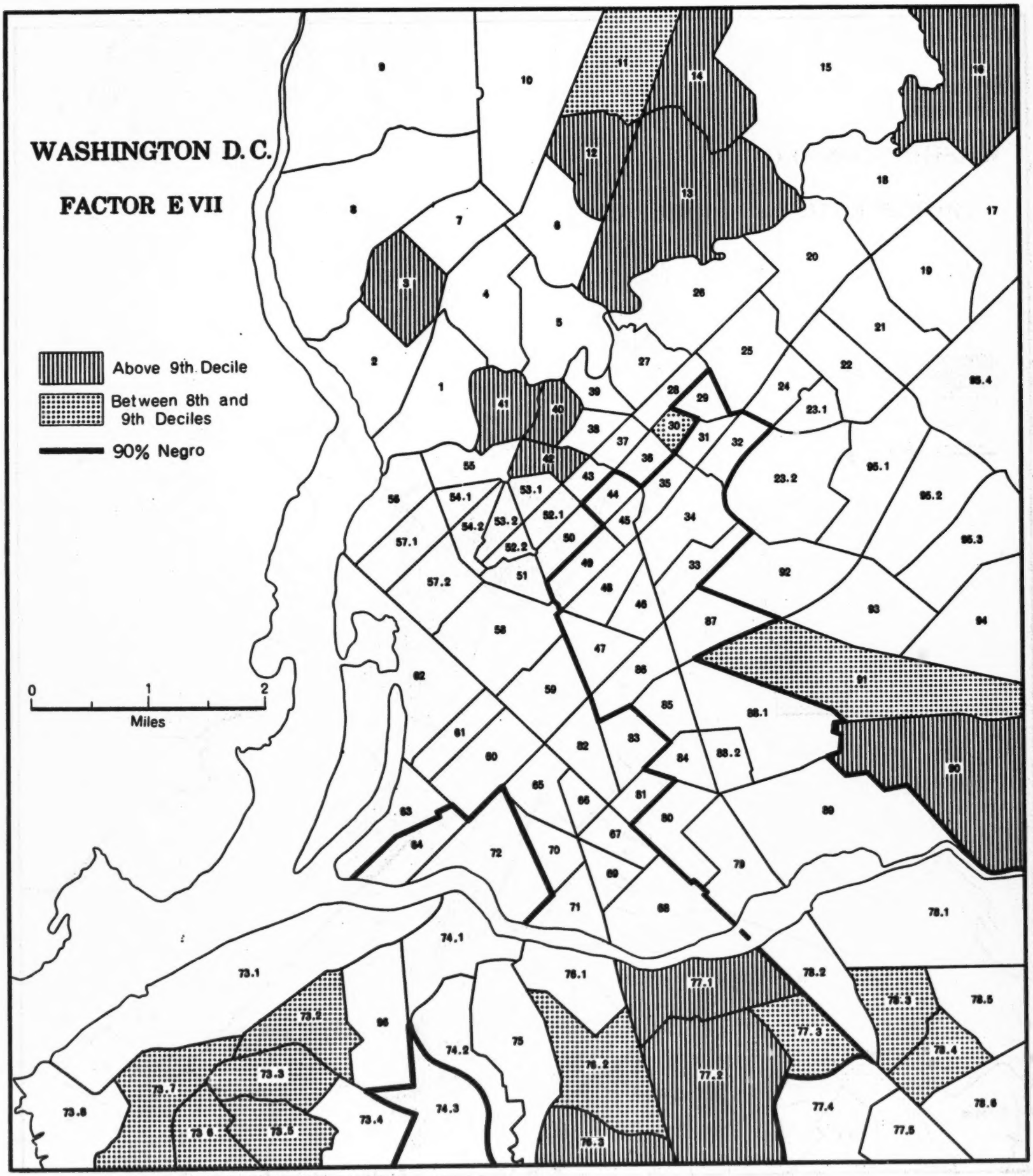
FACTOR E V



WASHINGTON D.C.

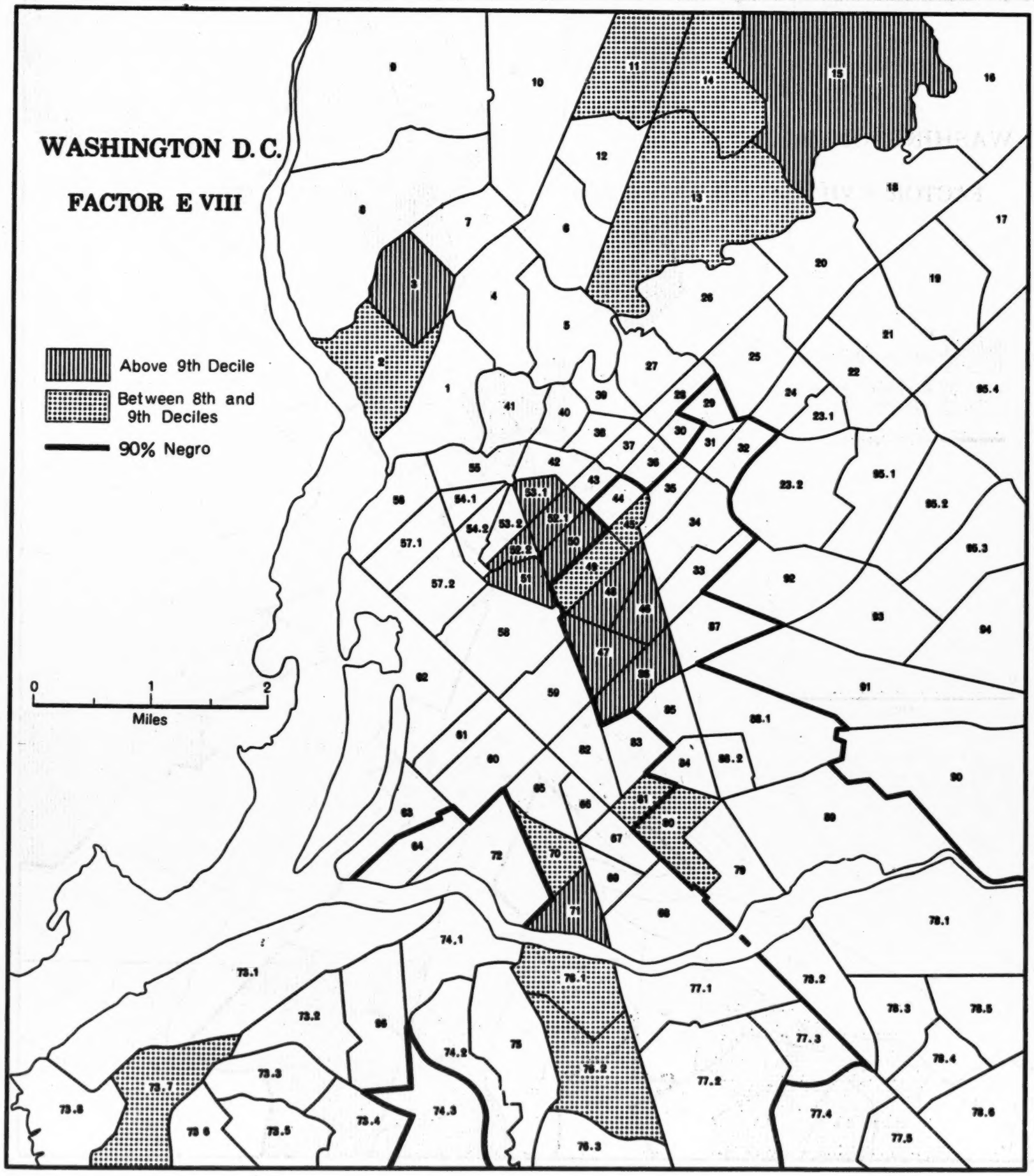
FACTOR E VI




WASHINGTON D.C.
FACTOR E VII
Above 9th Decile
Between 8th and 9th Deciles
90% Negro
0
1
2
Miles

WASHINGTON D.C.

FACTOR E VIII



The School Setting and Neighborhood Factor (E-I) is related to schools serving the Central Business District (D-II) regions -- tracts where hotel and business functions are present. These tracts are incompatible with the 90 percent Negro isoline area and so this relationship could be expected.

The Teacher Status and Experience Background (E-II) has two high correlations, both negative. Teachers in this group tend not to be found in schools serving Poverty Areas (D-V). The contingency coefficient (-.556) is extremely high, the highest in the study. These teachers are also absent in tracts where the population is youthful (D-VII). This implies that the teachers have found middle-class, mature neighborhoods in which to teach, a tendency consonant with the mapped distribution.

Factor E-III, School Building Factor is disassociated from the central urban areas identified with such factors as D-II, D-III and D-IV (Central Business District, Divorced and Widowed Negro Women Factor and Educational Institutional Centers) in decreasing order of intensity.

Married Teacher Factor (E-IV) is strongly disassociated from Negro Population Growth (D-VI) as well as the blighted areas. This group skirts the 90 percent Negro isoline.

The School Utilization Factor (E-V) is strongly disassociated from the Divorced and Widowed Negro Women Factor (D-III), possibly due to the high densities prevalent in the District around the center of the latter zone.

Teacher "Rural" Background Factor (E-VI) pattern display an affinity for schools serving the central tracts of the hotel district and the central business district, accompanied by an avoidance of population increase tracts (D-VII). The Academic Preparation Factor (E-VII distribution of teachers with bachelor's degrees only), the map shows such teachers located in schools in tracts with increasing Negro (D-VI) and youthful (D-VII) populations. The Attendance Factor (E-VIII) shows the same kind of associations.

The impression emerges from the maps that schools and faculties are distributed peripherally oriented to the middle class of both races. No factors are positively associated with the poverty neighborhoods (D-V). The Poverty Factor (D-V) is not even associated with the School Attendance Factor (E-VIII).

In understanding the allocation of educational resources in the District of Columbia, techniques for analysis and mapping are available which could provide educational planners with data that could improve the quality of planning. Such demographic mapping should be considered a basic and continuing part of the planning division's operations.

THE RESUME FOR THIS DOCUMENT ED 013 288 WAS MISCALCULATED. THERE ARE 9 MICROFICHE AND 606 PGS.

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